

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1877.

The Week.

THERE has probably not been such a Christmas, as regards weather, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant in this part of the country, and the present buying capacity of the public seems, in spite of the hard times, to have undergone no abatement. Moreover, it looks as if the close of the year left business in a better condition than most of us feared or were led to expect. If it were not for the cloud in the financial sky created by the silver agitation and the approaching reassembling of Congress, the new year would open with a considerable degree of hopefulness; and it is not so much the chance that the silver-men may succeed which is depressing as the state of mind on financial matters revealed by their performances, which are on the whole so dishonest, and barbarous and moblike that it seems as if it would put the whole machinery of civilization in peril were it to grow. That the alarm excited by it thus far, although it is undoubtedly serious in Europe, is not very deep-seated here is, we think, proved by the steadiness of gold. We think we may say, too, with great confidence that the agitators are not likely to be able to secure a two-thirds vote for their scheme in the Senate, and will almost certainly not secure it in the House. We may add that there is a widespread and growing desire and hope that as soon as we get back to specie payments the regular Christmas article in the newspapers, on the true meaning of the festival and the spiritual condition of their readers, and the advantages of peace and good will on earth, will disappear. It is now so unctuous and perfunctory, and comes in some cases from such queer pulpits, that people have come to associate it with the era of inflation and corruption, and look forward to being rid of it after 1879, and having something sincere and simple in its place.

Mr. Evarts's speech was the principal feature at the last dinner of the New England Society, and showed that the cares of office had done no damage to his wit, which flowed as freely and was as laughter-compelling as ever. The interest of the speech, however, lay in the serious part, where he touched on politics, especially on the question of civil-service reform. Here the audience undoubtedly expected something definite, but got nothing. Mr. Evarts said that, as regards that, "there should be no step backward"; that "magistrates, statesmen, preachers, teachers, editors, and the people" should "go on," and that it is for the people to say whether or no "the paths of public life shall be clean and bright and noble," and "ever tending upward." This suggests the inference that the difficulties in the way of civil-service reform come from the people, and perhaps it is true that one of these difficulties is popular apathy. But it is nevertheless not to be forgotten that a convention, elected by the people, last year at Cincinnati drew up and adopted a platform containing the principles of civil-service reform clearly set forth; that on this platform a candidate was nominated who gave in his adhesion to these principles in language which was almost needlessly emphatic; and that he was thereupon elected and put into office. What more can the people do? They have said distinctly that they wish public life to be "clean and bright and noble," and that they wish the President and his Cabinet to "tend ever upward"; but it is not their business to go to Washington and see that their wishes are carried out.

We do not desire in this matter to lay too heavy a burden of responsibility on the Administration, and are familiar with the fact to which attention is so often called, that the President and his Cabinet performe are, after all, men, and not angels. But it may be proper to say, in view of all that has occurred, and in view of the fact

that the President is about to send in a message about civil-service reform when Congress meets, and probably, we are told, will once more recommend the adoption of the old Curtis-Medill scheme, that the limits of the President's duties and of that of Congress are not only as plain as possible, but are perfectly well known. Undoubtedly there cannot be systematic reform of the civil service without Congressional legislation; but the President can, by his nominations and removals, give the public an illustration of what the civil service ought to be, keep the popular attention fixed on it, make its practicability visible, and prove his own faith in it. These are most important duties, and they remain imperative, whatever Congress may do or leave undone. Therefore we must not be, and we feel confident that we shall not be, treated to a repetition of the Grant plan — of one year of mingled reform and abuse, followed by an appeal to Congress to take charge of the whole business, and, failing that, an alliance between the Executive and Congress for the perpetration of all kinds of civil-service corruption and disorder.

The *Tribune*, whose change of front with regard to the South and the Administration and the civil service, is exciting increasing attention, had last week a solemn appeal to the President "to do one thing at a time"—that is, to devote his energies to restoring "harmony" in the party for the defence of the public credit, and to let civil-service reform alone for the present. This, of course, means, being interpreted, that he should let Senator Conkling have his way about the offices. It will occur to most intelligent people, however, that this advice should be given to Mr. Conkling, and is adapted to him only. The President has said his say about the public credit, and is pledged to do whatever may be necessary, although the matter has not yet come within his reach. Conkling, on the other hand, although the public credit is now in his hands as a legislator, has apparently given no thought or attention to it, and is not occupied with it. He represents a State which more than any other in the Union is interested in the currency, and its Senator ought to lead in all discussions on the currency. He, however, has not yet had a word to say on the silver question, and is busied in endeavoring to seize a share of the President's nominating and removing power. We suggest, therefore, that he should now devote himself to his own work, "do one thing at a time," "restore harmony" by letting the Custom-house alone, and bring his powerful mind to bear on the attempt now pending to lower the national standard of value. This is essentially the business of a New York Senator, and the chief business at this juncture. The subject will not interest the powerful mind probably half as much as haggernuggering with Messrs. Arthur and Dutcher about offices; but then even Senators have to do some drudgery now and then.

President Eliot did the public a service at the New England dinner, in the midst of the general tameness of the speaking, by the utterance of some plain truths about the scheme recommended by the President in his late message, of establishing a "national university" in Washington. This was probably the only surprising passage in the message, and the origin of it has caused a good deal of speculation. The plan is one which has now been on foot for some years, but has certainly not been helped by the discussion it has received, and the President ought to have some better adviser or inspirer on the subject, if he has not given it full consideration himself, than the present head of the Bureau of Education. The experience of every year shows more and more clearly the danger of having any portion of the more delicate machinery of government within the immediate reach and control of Congress. The recovery of the country from the losses of the war is now and has long been retarded by the deplorable fact that Congress has got hold of the currency; and the history of West Point, and of the Army and Navy, contains abundant illustration of the unfitness of that body to do the work

of immediate supervision, which it so jealously claims, over everything for which it votes money. A national university set up by it now would rapidly become a national shame and scandal, and would probably soon be the pet, or the *bête noire*, of some of the most ignorant and uncivilized members of both Houses. When a man like Mr. Stanley Matthews asks, in discussing coinage in the Senate, "What is 'abroad' to us?" the friends of the higher education cannot be too shy of letting the Government start colleges. Many Senators and Representatives seem to be working their way towards the mental outlook of Sitting Bull and Chief Joseph, who doubtless often ask Mr. Matthews's question with much bitterness of soul.

General Butler has, after long silence, unbosomed himself at a dinner of his friends and admirers in Boston, in a speech composed of the usual materials, and interesting as containing the creed of the average Republican office-holder and office-seeker of the day. He prophesied with great gusto the passage of the Bland Silver Bill over the President's veto within sixty days, and referred with satisfaction to his doctrine that prior to the passage of the Act of 1869 the United States bonds were payable in greenbacks, and evidently thought payment in silver the next best thing. He explained his recent silence by saying that the President had told him last spring that he thought he could build up a Republican party at the South, and he had been watching the experiment, which, of course, he considered a total failure. Civil-service reform, he said, he did not understand, and never heard it mentioned at Washington by Congressmen except as "a butt for a joke," and thought the President had now abandoned that plank in his platform. He was very hopeful about the Republican party in 1880, however, and thought it would then be as "victorious" as possible. Among his auditors were Messrs. Simmons and Boutwell, both Government officers by the sufferance or appointment of the President; and both, we have no doubt, agreed with and enjoyed every word Butler said, except perhaps his views on silver. In fact, Mr. Boutwell, we believe, makes no secret of his thorough sympathy with Conkling and of his contempt for civil-service reform and reformers, and weight is given to his naturally feeble criticisms by his having been made a sort of codifier of the United States statutes after a career of great mischief under General Grant.

We find this in the Chicago *Tribune*:

"Having for nearly a year denied the secrecy of the demonetization job, the *Nation* now confesses it, saying that it was not necessary to let the public know anything about it at the time it took place."

The untruthful assertions of the *Tribune* about the facts of the silver question have been tolerably shocking during the past year, and have furnished the main portion of the support it has given to the craze, but no other paper could spare the space or time to follow them up. The above reference to the *Nation*, however, calls for sufficient attention from us to say that it is wholly and ingeniously false. It contains two propositions each of which could only be properly characterized by the late lamented Greeley. We have no doubt whatever that the editors of both the *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial* will live to be ashamed of the part they are taking in this wretched agitation, but they ought to make their mischievous activity as decent as possible.

The South Carolina Legislature adjourned last week for the holidays, one of its last acts being the ratification, by a two-thirds vote, of a constitutional amendment providing for an annual tax on polls for educational purposes exclusively. The fact that there is no longer any Republican party in South Carolina appears, therefore, to be of less consequence than those who denounce the President's "policy" would have led us to suppose. Ku Kluxing and massacres have ceased; the negroes vote without molestation at the polls and convict white men from the jury-box; the colored militia companies are reviewed by the State authorities, complimented, and reorganized for their greater efficiency; and, finally, a measure

introduced by the carpet-bag government which had squandered and plundered the school-fund for a dozen years, is taken up and made part of the Constitution, and it only remains to deal justly with the State's creditors to complete the picture of ruin so often painted for us by Republican Senators in Congress. None of these things could have been achieved under the Chamberlain or any similar régime, except the passage of the constitutional amendment; and that would have lacked the essential element of good faith, viz., the intention to administer the school-tax honestly after it had been levied. It is needless to add that the conviction of Republican thieves like Cardoza and Smalls could never have occurred with Elliott for attorney-general. The Legislature's work in this direction is not yet complete. The Senate resolution for still further investigation of Patterson was captured for the Committee on Federal Relations, through the influence, it is said, of Senator M. C. Butler, who, for reasons not connected with the "policy," is disposed to leave Patterson in peace. Butler's competitor, however, D. T. Corbin, was honored with a special committee of investigation, who will enquire whether in his efforts to reach the Senate he was guilty of bribing members of the General Assembly.

The assault of the Excise Commissioners on the liquor-dealers in this city, to which we have already referred, has had an almost ludicrous termination, but one very characteristic of our city government. After a very large sum had been received from the alarmed dealers for licenses, or in anticipation of licenses, it was deposited in bank in the name of one of the Commissioners, named Owen Murphy, and he, feeling in need of funds, drew out \$50,000 of it on Saturday last and absconded. Not only was the money deposited to his sole order as Treasurer of the Board, but he had given no bonds. Murphy, too, was a retired Irish plumber, who was supposed to be well off, but was a "good fellow," jolly and careless in his ways, fond of gambling, with little or no education, and had risen into prominence during the Ring period through the usual gradations of ward politics, beginning, of course, as a volunteer fireman. The other Commissioners are now trying to believe that they are not personally liable for the amount of the defalcation, but it is to be hoped they are mistaken. As has been often remarked, there is nothing more curious in the government of this city than the kind of men who carry it on, and the way in which they are prepared for their arduous duties. Never before in the world's history was the administrative class drawn from such a social stratum as furnishes our officers, and in saying this it is its moral and mental characteristics we have in mind, not its pecuniary means. Murphy was a kind of man whose admission to any place of trust or emolument was forbidden by all human experience.

Dr. Lambert, the President of the "American Popular Life Insurance Co.," has been convicted of perjury in making false returns as to the condition of the company, and is now in the Tombs, following Mr. Case, the President of the "Security," convicted of a similar offence. Case being older was probably less to blame than Lambert, but both can plead the vicious system on which most of the more recently established companies have been founded, in palliation of their offence, for it is a system of which the public has had full knowledge. We mean the system of getting up companies not so much to do a legitimate business as to provide places for a president or secretary who is unable to find an opening elsewhere or has failed in some other calling. Officers who are put in in this way cannot in the nature of things be expected to be very vigilant or efficient, and are sure to be in the hands of somebody else, who is the real manager and prepares the returns and affidavits. It will doubtless do good to have the danger of taking oaths on trust brought home to officers of corporations, but the late offences are the natural product of the loose, good-natured, devil-may-care way of doing business which became common after the war.

British censuses fell $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent. during the week on account of the talk about England becoming isolated in the war when the

time comes for a settlement of the Eastern Question. United States bonds declined $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$, but less on account of the general depression in the London market than because of the advices from this country respecting silver remonetization. The current of U. S. bonds as between New York and London still runs towards this city, and bills on London have advanced half a cent during the week. The Treasury will pay out nearly \$24,000,000 on account of January interest, beginning on Wednesday. The large part of it which belongs to European holders would, except for the silver agitation, remain here. Silver itself was steady during the week at 53 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 54 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per oz. Gold fell from 103 to 102 $\frac{1}{2}$, closing at 102 $\frac{1}{4}$, the Treasury disbursements of \$24,000,000 being sufficient to weigh down the price and temporarily to neutralize the effect of the silver mania. The bullion necessary to make a 412 $\frac{1}{2}$ -grain silver dollar had a gold value at the close of the week of 90 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents. The promise of the Government to pay one dollar (the U. S. legal-tender note) had a gold value at the close of about 97 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

The excitement in England over the rapidly-approaching crisis in the Turco-Russian conflict grows deeper every day, and has been intensified by the settlement of the French imbroglio, which divided popular attention, and by the summoning of Parliament for the 17th of January instead of, as is usual, the middle of February. There are two leading conjectures as to the object of the Ministry in calling it together. One is, to pass an act of indemnity for warlike measures taken in advance; the other is, to take the responsibility off the shoulders of the Cabinet of deciding what ought to be done. This latter is rendered more probable by the fact that the Cabinet is unquestionably divided as to what the policy of England ought to be, Lord Derby and Lord Salisbury being in favor of letting Turkey shift for herself, and Lord Beaconsfield in favor of some sort of demonstration, he probably does not well know what, against Russia. In the meantime events are pressing on each other rapidly. The Turkish resistance is visibly relaxing, and the Russian demands are as visibly rising. It is more than probable that the Russian publication weekly of their losses up to date is a sort of butcher's bill, intended to give notice of the increase in their expectations. The pro-Turkish party are losing ground in England, owing to their inability to say what ought to be done, in view of the absence of an army and the inability of the fleet to get at the Russians. The small amount of influence the Turkish fleet has exerted on the war is, indeed, a sort of warning to England of her own powerlessness. The thing to which the mind of the bellicose party seems now to be turning, however, is the annexation of Egypt, and if Disraeli was younger he would perhaps seize it. But he is old and sick, and probably has not nerve enough for the job.

In the meantime there is no sign of relief from Germany. Bismarck is more outspoken than ever in his determination to let Russia have her way, and Austria seems hardly less backward. Moreover, Russia now appears to be determined to force Turkey to treat with her directly and to refuse all mediation, which again would be a serious blow to English diplomacy, and threatens positive humiliation. And yet for this as well as for the war itself English diplomacy only will be to blame, for the smallest pressure on the Turk after the Conference would have made him submit, and, as Mr. Gladstone has pointed out, a few ships of war in the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, to prevent the drawing of troops from Asia, would have prevented his fighting very long in any case. Even after Russia had finally decided on aggression, however, she offered Lord Derby a chance of keeping a hold on her, which would have given him the right to intervene at this juncture, by proposing to carry on the war as the agent of the Powers represented at the Conference, but this, too, was peremptorily rejected. The consequence now is that Russia has a complete answer to any offer of mediation or advice.

Everything in France seems to be moving on very smoothly. The new Ministers have stopped all the pending press prosecutions, and ordered the reinstatement of the municipal councils removed by M.

Fourtou. The Left is now pressing for a restriction on the power of dissolution, and for the admission of the Legislature to a share in the right of proclaiming a state of siege, and, these obtained, it might safely be said that all cause for apprehension about 1880 would be removed. The late elections of Councils-General, moreover, show a Republican gain of forty-five councils against thirty-six formerly held. A little sensation has been produced by the cashiering of a captain of infantry, by the Marshal's decree, for having said, on Nov. 13, that he would not march to Paris to assist in a *coup d'état*, and it seems to be exciting suspicions among some of the Radicals that a *coup d'état* was really intended, and that some preparations had been made for it; and there is some talk of an enquiry about it, which would plainly be very unwise. Whether a *coup* was meditated or not, discipline requires that an officer who charged the President with intending it, and announced his intention to disobey orders in advance of receiving them, should be promptly punished, so that the captain's case is not one for prudent politicians to take notice of. Extensive changes are also being made among the prefects, Fourtou's most pliant tools being probably dismissed. The shortness of their reign and the promptness of their punishment will undoubtedly render the conduct of another canvass like the last more difficult than ever, even should the Marshal's mind be again "poisoned." The abuse heaped now by the clerical papers on the Duc de Broglie, which is very fierce and coarse, forms a somewhat comic termination to the famous crisis which will now be known in French politics as the "16 Mai." The restrictions put by Fourtou on the circulation of the newspapers through the colporteurs have also been removed.

A terrific snowstorm which prevailed in Rumania and Bulgaria in the early part of the week suddenly interrupted the movements of troops begun by the Russians after the capture of Plevna. Drifting ice on the Danube tore away the military bridge at Braila, which is a very severe blow to Zimmerman, in the Dobrudja. The effects of the storm in the Balkan regions are as yet unreported. A force under Skobelev is stated to have entered Troyan, south of Lovatz. The position of Komartzi, in the mountains east of Sophia, is still held by the Turks, though the Russians seem to have been moving against that city further west. Suleiman Pasha has withdrawn his more advanced posts towards the quadrilateral, and gone to Adrianople by way of Constantinople, to superintend the preparations for a defensive campaign south of the Balkans. According to an indirect report, ten thousand of his troops came with him from Varna, and others were expected to join him in Rambelia, by the mountain defiles. The Russians are reported to be preparing for the siege of Rustchuk, while the Rumanians and Servians are jointly to blockade Widdin. The troops which are to operate against Rustchuk have been placed under the command of General Todleben, to whose direction the successful issue of the siege of Plevna is attributed.

The Servians, a few days after crossing the frontier, occupied Fort Mramor, near Nissa, and Prokovie, southwest of that town, unopposed, and after a stubborn engagement destroyed the Tchetchina bridge of the Bulgarian Morava, cutting the communications between Nissa and Leskovatz. On December 24, after eight hours' severe fighting, they captured Ak-Palanka, between Nissa and Pirot, and began the bombardment of Nissa. A severe Serbian repulse elsewhere is reported from the Turkish side. The Montenegrins have been checked in their operations against Antivari and Scutari by the successful advance of Turkish troops from Podgoritzza. Half of the fresh Egyptian contingent, consisting in great part of Nubians, sailed from Alexandria on December 24, as rumor had it for Crete, where the insurrectionary movement is said to be assuming threatening proportions. In Armenia the Russians, under General Komareff, on the 17th, stormed Ardanuteb, a small fortified post west-southwest of Ardahan, near the line of communication between Batum and Erzerum. The latter city is reported to be almost invested, the Russian infantry being massed north and east of it, and the cavalry roaming through the surrounding plain.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE AND THE PUBLIC CREDIT.

THERE is one mode of testing the real character of the agitation in favor of the remonetization of silver which we believe to be perfectly accurate, but the result of which would be very disheartening. We mean proposing to the advocates of the measure that silver should be legal tender at its bullion price in gold. This would meet completely the argument that it was unwise to throw out of use as money one of the principal products of the country, and also the argument that there was not gold enough in the world to do the work of exchange. Nevertheless it has never been suggested by the "silver-men," and we feel quite sure would meet with no acceptance among them. The reason is, in our opinion, that this arrangement would offer no opportunity to anybody of getting the better of his creditors—or, in other words, would want the flavor of fraud which gives the remonetization scheme most of its attractiveness. We may add, too, that it was the absence of any tincture of fraud—or, if you please, of any opportunity of making anything out of anybody—which in part caused the demonetization of silver to attract so little attention. Those who suppose that the tuneful voices now raised at the West in favor of "the dollar of our fathers" would have been silent in 1873 if this dollar, instead of being worth three per cent. more than gold, had been worth three per cent. less, deceive themselves grossly about the honest "silver-man's" powers of observation. He lay silent during demonetization not because he was asleep, or "Ernest Lloyd" and the "money sharps" had drugged him, as he now pretends, but because he saw no profit in opposition. Had the bill seemed likely to take away from him the chance of even one per cent. of unpunishable swindle, he would have filled the air with his protests and lamentations.

This view of the case is made all the stronger by the threats with which the silver movement has during the last few weeks begun to be supported, of an attack on the whole fabric of the public credit in case the demands of the agitators are not complied with. This threat was first uttered in a manner to attract any attention by Mr. Bland, the author of the Silver Bill, and addressed to the deputation of merchants who went on from this city some weeks ago to oppose the measure before the Senate. He is a person, however, so wanting in knowledge and discretion, and, indeed, as his writings and speeches seem to show, so crackbrained, that, mortifying as it is to see an American Congress putting him on a quasi-scientific commission and allowing him to initiate legislation on so serious a matter as the currency, it would hardly do to treat his denunciation as a sign of danger to the national debt. But within a few weeks the threat has been resorted to very extensively as a means of backing up the silver movement, and plugging the holes which have been knocked in the case of the agitators during the course of the discussion. At the Western meetings and in many of the Western articles we are told, as a summing up of the whole case, that whether the demonetization was a fraudulent expedient or not makes no difference; that if "the people" are not allowed to pay the public debt in silver they will not pay it at all. At this point the political demagogue who professes to be on the side of honesty and good faith, steps in and says that nobody can see more clearly than he the error of the silver agitation; nobody is more desirous of seeing all the public obligations carried out, not in the letter only but in the spirit; but that, as a practical man, he cannot shut his eyes to the facts of the case. The creditor has his rights, it is true, but so has the taxpayer, and both must be respected. It is pleasant for the creditor to receive, but it is unpleasant for the debtor to pay, and the debtor's feelings must be taken into account. At present, the debtor does not want to pay the entire debt; it would be disagreeable and hard for him to do so. A small discount, however, would satisfy him—say the ten per cent. which would be accorded him by taking payment in silver. True, this would not be a very reputable or wise thing, but then something worse is to be feared—viz., that if payment is not accepted in silver the whole debt will be repudiated; no one would regret this more than he (the Demagogue), but such is universal suffrage. When universal suffrage

resolves on a thing, what is the use of opposing it? Universal suffrage owes all this money, and unless things are made entirely agreeable for it, it will not pay a cent. It is already breaking loose; he, with the assistance of a few friends, may be able to restrain it for a short period, but he will not answer for it very long, and if it once gets out of the enclosure it will not leave a creditor alive. It is, in fact, a many-headed beast, not immoral exactly, but immoral, with which it is useless to argue, and which is to be managed sometimes by deceiving it but always by humoring it.

Now, this view is not new. It was presented to us on this very subject of the public credit in 1867, when the late Senator Morton and the present Mr. B. F. Butler began an agitation in favor of paying the bondholders in greenbacks. They used very much the same argument as the silver-men, viz., that the bondholders had taken advantage of the national distress; that the people were sorely burdened; that the bonds did not say in what species of currency they were to be paid; that it would therefore be "right" to pay them in lawful money of the United States, and that if we looked in the dictionary under the word "lawful," and under the word "money," we should find that lawful money meant greenbacks; that anyhow, no matter what it meant, the people would never consent to pay the bonds in coin, and that the bondholder had better make the best terms he could while compromise was still possible. At this point Senator Sherman stepped in and proposed a compromise, which was that the bondholder should convert his six per cent. bonds into five per cents., without the option of being paid off. He did not pretend that this was an equitable arrangement; but he knew it would be a prudent one. Universal suffrage was getting restive; its chain was beginning to give way, and if it once got loose, God help the poor bondholder; therefore he was the best friend of the bondholder who induced him, during the few hours that were left, to abate something of his demands.

We think it will not be denied by anybody that the United States presents just now in matters relating to pecuniary honesty a somewhat shocking spectacle; that in no commercial country, and at no period, have so many examples of fraud, both public and private, been crowded into so brief a space of time. States, counties, cities, and towns seem to be vying with each other in repudiating obligations which they solemnly contracted, and by which they have substantially profited. We say nothing of the breakdown of corporate management, and the wide-spread disregard of the morals of the fiduciary relation in private life, of which there are so many revelations every day. We confine ourselves to what is going on in public life among public bodies. What we are witnessing here is but the natural result of the doctrine which has been covertly permeating politics now for half a century, and which public men now preach with the utmost brass, that men in a mass, or "the people," as it is called, are not necessarily moral, and need consult no law but their own will; that, in short, power in any particular case raises them above morality, and that it is no harm to cheat when you can cheat without legal punishment; that, in short, as Ben Butler tersely put it, a nation has no conscience. This doctrine is seldom preached directly, but it is preached indirectly with great effect, and receives abundance of encouragement from very good men. To no agency does it owe more of its strength and diffusion than to the growing practice of treating widespread desires or opinions as irresistible and not to be gainsaid. The people, of course, here, as in every other country, is liable to be deceived by fallacies, to have its judgment perverted or its conscience clouded by its self-interest, or what appears to be its self-interest, and to be carried away by gusts of passion. We have had many examples of this within the last twenty years. But the great use of a free press and of a body of men who have won popular confidence by long public service, and who are qualified by wide experience to take a clear and calm view of what constitutes the permanent public interest, is to furnish at such crises a ready means of bringing the people rapidly to its sober second thought and to furnish proper materials for that sober second thought. Now, it is no exaggeration to say that of late prominent men in public life have shown a greater and greater

reluctance to be used for any such purpose, and a greater and greater readiness to act as mere viziers of a despot, rather than as the ministers of a free state, and to treat even the wildest and hastiest popular cry as a final decision, and to occupy themselves with finding the means of its execution rather than with the work of procuring further enquiry or more mature consideration.

This tendency on the part of public men, again, is encouraged by the fact that no amount of tergiversation seems to forfeit the respect even of that portion of the community which professes to cultivate morals. A man like the late Mr. Morton, who for the last fifteen years of his life seemed to take pains to show that he had rid himself of convictions on all public questions, and was ready to advocate anything which was likely to have plenty of votes, found himself surrounded on his deathbed by sorrowing divines who represented his departure as in some sort a blow to the moral government of the world. The school of which he was a distinguished master grows apace, and grows owing to the tolerance and silence of honorable and thoughtful men; and the effects of this tolerance and silence on the popular conscience are bad and likely to be worse. The theory that universal suffrage is a brute without conscience, or scruple, or memory, or judgment, or anything but desires and will and power, with which it is useless to reason, is one which has always produced the lowest and most debased class of demagogues, and which, if carried far enough and practised long enough, would make free government impossible. It has found and is finding most dangerous expression in this silver agitation, and it is hardly possible to speak too severely of the complacent optimism which makes honest men at such a crisis so silent and hopeful. Resistance to the mania is left everywhere to a few newspapers. The bulk of those who see it in its true light, and hear their country described in terms which really represent it as a den of brigands, find sufficient vent for their indignation in fireside or street-car chat. This non-combativeness of the good is a sure preparation for some irreparable disaster. The world can neither be saved nor bettered by "harmony" or being "friendly all round." There is hardly a good thing in it that is not the result of successful strife; hardly a step upward in government which good men have not fought for and by which "sentiments" have not been "embittered." And we would warn those who are disposed to treat the silver movement as a mere question of finance the settlement of which may be left to experts, that it is supported in a spirit and by arguments which, if once fairly embedded in our politics, would make that portion of the next generation on which we are now bestowing our most careful moral and intellectual training, rightfully ashamed of their country.

OUR MEXICAN TROUBLES.

DURING the ten years since Marshal Bazaine embarked for his return voyage to France, and Maximilian was shot, nothing of a political character has occurred in or emanated from Mexico which has given or should occasion ill-feeling on the part of the Government or people of the United States. The successive Presidents, Benito Juarez, Lerdo de Tejada, and Porfirio Diaz, the last of whom seized the chief magistracy one year ago, and still holds it notwithstanding the plots of the Church party, were all liberals, and all have shown the utmost desire not only for peace but for the most friendly relations with this country. Whatever difficulties have occurred or may be impending are attributable wholly to the weakness of the central authority and the strength of the horse and cattle thieves, white, Indian, and mestizo, on the Rio Grande. These difficulties are of a very varied character owing to the diverse population and opportunities along the extensive border.

The present excitement arises from causes with no international significance and of small original importance even in the secluded locality concerned, El Paso County. Between the geographically Texan but intrinsically Mexican town of San Elizario, not far from the line of New Mexico, and the abandoned but to be restored Fort Quitman, lie extensive salt marshes which for all historic time have been common property, where all the farmers and rancheros on both

sides of the river freely gathered all the salt they required. Lately some enterprising speculators took up the land from the State in the usual manner, and now charge a "royalty" of a dollar or some smaller sum per wagon-load. This has occasioned conflicts between the owners and the incensed and saltless people, some of whom come from the neighboring Mexican State of Chihuahua, but much the larger part are residents of San Elizario and vicinity on our side, the population there being to a large extent of Mexican birth, and having little regard either for the laws of the United States or any law whatever. There is nothing in this struggle between smart capitalists and stubborn squatters or poachers which might not occur in many thinly-populated parts of the United States, and it is to be settled in the usual way—by police, if strong enough, and if not, by the army. That the extent of the riot requires the aid of the regular army has no more to do with the so-called Mexican Question than did the strike of railroad employees last summer in West Virginia and of coal-miners in Pennsylvania.

Passing down the stream of the dividing river, a long-continued source of annoyance has existed in the incursions of the Mescalero Apaches and a band of Comanches, who habitually occupy a region in Chihuahua, and have often raided into Texas by the fords at Presidio del Norte, hiding themselves from pursuit in the inaccessable defiles of the Sierra Blanca. Many horses and mules have been carried off in these sudden incursions, and even Government transportation trains captured. These Indians, now suffering from famine produced by want of rain in their old home, have made friends with the tribes south of the Rio Grande, between Fort Duncan and San Carlos, and, shifting their line of operations, have added to the depredations made on the Texas side by the latter, who are Lipans and Kickapoos. Though the first-named of these more eastern bodies comprises not more than one hundred and twenty-five souls, and the Kickapoos about two hundred—who have made their escape to the far south after being hustled by our national Government all the way from Lake Superior, and now pay back the favors received—their regular practice of crossing over to supply themselves with horses at every new moon, choosing the "dark side to come and the light to return," has been a serious and hitherto uncontrollable evil. It would, however, be unfair to charge it to the negligence, and still more to the intention, of the Government of Mexico, it being simply a part of the troublesome Indian problem regarding which our country cannot for very shame take high ground. We do not now keep the settlers in our Black Hills secure from Indian attacks, and when Sitting Bull's warriors come again on the war-path from beyond our northern frontier, we probably shall not declare war against Great Britain if the Dominion authorities have done their best to prevent the continuance of incursions from their side of the border, though doubtless we shall expect more efficient aid from the Governor-General than we know is possible from a perplexed Mexican president struggling daily with internal treason, the rallying cry for which is his sympathy with the United States and desire for a fair commercial treaty.

Between Fort Duncan and Laredo there is little trouble, but between that town and Brownsville begin the only inroads which from their extent and the character of those concerned in them are really dangerous to international peace. They are made not for horses but cattle, and not by Indians but whites—that is, if Mexicans can in their general hybridity be properly characterized as white. No cattle, or so few as to be utterly insignificant for the supply of the local market, are raised on the Mexican side, yet the price of beef in Matamoras averages less than half that at Brownsville. The rancheros are idle, but apparently thriving on their elegant leisure. Nearly the whole of the present cattle-raising section of Texas is confined to the counties extending within twenty-five miles of the Rio Grande near the southern point of the State, and many beeves from there are furnished to the butchers of Matamoras at moderate rates, being brought in by drovers of the Rob Roy style. Robberies by organized bands have extended, accompanied with the occasional killing of herders, to within twenty miles of Corpus Christi. The local authorities are absolutely powerless to

prevent lawlessness when the whole population is composed of thieves, receivers, or beneficiaries. Canales nominally governs the State of Tamaulipas, but the bandit chief Cortiña is its actual ruler. This remarkable outlaw has made himself a modern Robin Hood, securing popularity by generosity to the poor, and so organizing his force that though at three days' notice he can summon probably one thousand armed men at any point on the lower Rio Grande, the same men are at all other times peaceful rancheros, precisely as the guerrillas of the Potowmack counties of Virginia were simple farmers with loyal tendencies. When we complain of the central government of Mexico we should remember that our own boasted power has not always prevented the invasion of our northern neighbor by "patriots," nor has it wholly restrained the shipment of volunteers and munitions of war for Cuba.

Our remedy is the simple one of lining our side of the Rio Grande with a sufficient force to provide against the exceptional evils arising from the character of the population on both sides of the border, and which no government can at once remedy. From Brownsville to Ringgold Barracks is three hundred miles by water, though only one hundred and twenty-five by land. From Ringgold Barracks to Laredo the river distance is one hundred and twelve miles, and from Laredo to Fort Duncan also one hundred and twelve, thus leaving five hundred and twenty-four miles to be guarded by four hundred soldiers. It is not difficult to explain how thieves can break through and steal if they are fond of Texan cattle. The whole Rio Grande border, including the part where the Indians ford, is about fifteen hundred miles long, and the same ratio of guard has perforce been kept up by our War Department, and furnishes a fraction of a soldier per mile. The expense of new permanent forts is not necessary, as cantonments of a judicious reinforcement of troops near the places where fording is possible are, in that climate, sufficient. Either the character of the inhabitants will be improved within a few years or the relations of the neighboring governments will be changed, so that large fortifications on our southern lines will be as useless as are now the costly structures on the old Canadian frontier.

The fact is that the boundary river makes no sharp division of the real nationality or habits of the population. The "greaser" is common on the hither side, and the bandit chief Cortiña could not be successful in his raids if there were not many in connivance with him who profess to be citizens of the United States and give him aid, comfort, and, when necessary, concealment, within the belt between the great river and the cattle-raising counties. State troops of Texas, if relied upon for police purposes, might be composed of many in league with the bandits, as is alleged of the soldiers of modern Greece, or might be confined to the so-called "American" element in Texas, smarting under personal loss, hating the Mexican with hereditary rancor, and anxious to make reprisals on any one on either side of the line who should be found guilty of speaking Spanish. Nothing can secure tranquillity and order but a respectable force of our regular army, with officers and men free alike from the heat of revenge and schemes for loot. Annexation will not remove the necessity for such an armed force, for if Tamaulipas were to-day, with all peace and quietness, an American instead of a Mexican state, the character of the people would require for many years a large army of occupation, as there is no magic in the Stars and Stripes that will reform a community of cattle thieves; and our statesmen should ponder well the fact that an addition to the territory of our Republic gives us so many more masters instead of subjects.

LANDTAG AND GOVERNMENT IN PRUSSIA.

GERMANY, December 2, 1877.

THE intrigues of the ex-King of Hanover, with a view to repossessing himself of his crown, formerly induced the Landtag to give the Government full power to withhold the indemnity of sixteen millions granted to the ex-sovereign, and to employ the interest in counteracting those machinations. For years the Cabinet has been accused by all parties of using some of this "Welfen Fond" in a way to make every patriot blush.

Everybody is satisfied that a considerable part of it is spent in paying the good services of a number of papers which pretend to be quite independent—*i. e.*, in falsifying and thereby demoralizing public opinion. Every attempt, however, to redress the mistake made in a weak hour of blame-worthy over-confidence has met with signal defeat. The Cabinet stands on the letter of the law, and nothing can induce it to let go its hold of the dangerous weapon. Nevertheless the *Fortschrittspartei* lately ventured a new interpellation, desiring to learn just enough about how the money was employed to be satisfied that it was not spent in a downright illegal way. The interpellation was generally deemed quite in place, though nobody expected a satisfactory answer. The Cabinet thought fit to repeat its unqualified refusal in a manner which could not but be considered insulting to the House, though it was, perhaps, not intended to be so. None of the ministers, though they had consented to the interpellation, was present. One of their commissioners read a declaration on behalf of the Cabinet, stating, in three or four lines, and in a provoking tone, that the House would not learn anything whatever with regard to the money. One could not help being reminded of the times when the then *Herr von Bismarck* addressed the House with his left hand in his trousers pocket, and his right hand busily engaged with a toothpick. The *Fortschrittspartei* at once demanded the presence of the ministers, according to section 60 of the Constitution. This demand was declared out of order as well by the President as by the House, because the rules forbid a motion to be entertained while an interpellation is being discussed. The question of order was, however, merely the appropriate form to attain the real end of the majority, *viz.*, to avoid an open conflict before the meeting of the Reichstag. For this reason the motions which the *Fortschrittspartei* made with regard to the right of the House to demand the presence of the ministers will have no immediate practical result, though they will, perhaps, be partly agreed to by the National Liberals. The only practical consequence of this unexpected intermezzo is, that the two principal liberal parties are denouncing each other with more bitterness and violence than ever before, while the good understanding between the Cabinet and the National Liberals has certainly not been strengthened. Even the most moderate of their respective organs sum up their reasonings in the one word, that "the situation is very uncomfortable" (*sehr unbehaglich*).

At the same time the *Culturkampf* is going on in a very lively style; but the public, thus far, pay comparatively little attention to the mutual onslaughts, for which the still unfinished debate on the budget for Dr. Falk's department offers ample opportunity. The charges and counter-charges are, in the main, the same which we have heard all these years. Somewhat, though not quite, new, however, is the direct and emphatic demand of the Ultramontanes for Catholic universities, and the equally emphatic answer of Dr. Falk, that they would never get any, either from him or from any other Prussian minister. Those parts of the debate which have nothing to do with the *Culturkampf*, have enlisted the interest of the public in the highest degree. Though Dr. Falk has not been able to keep his promise to present the draught of a new school-law, yet his declarations, so far as they go, have been well received. He has intimated that the fear of seeing his draught wrecked on the rock of the financial question will probably prove to be unfounded. He and Mr. von Camphausen seem to have come so near a complete understanding that we may hope to see the ship launched in not too distant a future. It is about time. Mr. Knoerke reminded the House that the bad condition of the common schools (*des Volksschulwesens*) has been ever since 1801, *so to say*, standing on the order of the day, and the evils complained of are in some respects so great and crying that it is a sin to delay the cure another moment. The salaries of the teachers are sometimes not sufficient to pay for the most necessary clothing, and when they are pensioned they have "really to starve": in this respect the aged teachers ought at least to be put a little above the level of the common soldiers. The speaker knew the widow of a teacher who had been fifty years in service; though she is herself unable to work, her pension amounts to but 50 thalers a year. Dr. Miguel urges upon the attention of the Government the general complaint that the pupils of the higher schools, and more especially of the gymnasia, are overburdened, and Mr. Schmidt illustrates the evil by the fact that, "from *Tertia* to *Prima*," fully 20 per cent. of the scholars have "weak eyes." The Government commissioner acknowledges the complaints to be well founded to some extent, and promises to redress the grievances whenever specific charges are brought to the Government's knowledge. The principal difficulty lies in the fact that, as a rule, the parents indulge in mere general talking, while they very often fail to give the teachers the necessary support in forcing the pupils to make the proper use of their time. He would, for instance, beg the House to remember how much the beer-

saloons are frequented by scholars. This remark was universally assented to. I might add that, at this very moment, the head of the educational department in Baden has sent an official communication to the proper authorities in Freiburg, reminding them that schoolboys are not allowed to visit drinking-houses.

Another complaint, in regard to which the Government has manifested an entirely satisfactory disposition, is the amount of pecuniary aid it affords to the higher schools of the cities. In the eight old provinces of Prussia the amount paid by the Government in 1869 towards defraying the expenses of these schools was but 32 per cent., while at present the amount is about equally divided between the state and the communities. The trouble, then, is now not so much that the Government does not pay enough, as that the several provinces are treated in a very different manner. In some of them the Government pays 79 per cent., while others get but 27 per cent. Some cities receive everything, others nothing, and some have to pay as much as 100 M. per head for the children from the country, who do not contribute anything whatever to the support of the schools. "This state of affairs has developed itself in the course of time without real injustice, and yet it is so unjust that it can no longer be borne." The last subject considered by the House has been the presumed fact that there is a most alarming and constantly-growing lack of teachers. This is happily not the case to such an extent as to justify the apprehensions which have been pretty commonly entertained of late years. The whole number of teachers, male and female, in Prussia, is 56,649—2,153 more than in 1875, and 3,466 more than in 1871. In Berlin alone 560 new places for teachers have been established. In December last there were 470 girls in the seminaries for school-mistresses (*Volksschullehrerinnen*). Since then another such seminary has been established in Xanten, and one more is to be established in Schleswig-Holstein. On the other hand, there have been, in the past two years, but 42 added to the whole number of "ordinary teacherships" which could not be filled. In 1876 there were 92 schools in the whole state where no teaching at all was possible, "and these schools were mostly situated in highly mountainous or quite isolated regions."

So the whole debate has tended to render Dr. Falk a stronger and more popular man. Only one thing has been greatly regretted by those on whose support he may count. He was requested to publish the draught of the school-law before presenting it to the Landtag, so that there might be ample time to study and discuss it publicly. This request he has left unanswered.

Correspondence.

THE FINE ARTS GROUP AT THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

To THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : The number of the *Nation* of October 12, 1876, contained a communication which I thought it my duty to make with regard to the irregular action of the Centennial Exposition authorities. This irregularity was the acceptance by them of awards made in Group XXVII. by a small majority of the judges after the Group had formally and deliberately made its report, adjourned and separated. At the last regular meeting of the judges in Group XXVII, the reports of the different committees were handed in with the awards properly filled up and signed, according to the official rules. These separate reports were formally adopted in the sessions of each committee, and were written by the chairmen of these committees. These chairmen were : upon painting, Charles West Cope, R.A., of England ; upon sculpture, myself ; upon engraving, Mr. Frank H. Smith ; upon photography, Professor Henry Draper. The report of Mr. Mitchell on the part of the committee upon the remaining classes was not ready on that day, and note was made in the general report that it would subsequently be furnished. All of the above-named reports were brief but comprehensive, and received almost unanimous approval. Those upon painting and sculpture were of special importance, for they stated the plan upon which the awards were made in those classes. Without this statement these awards are meaningless. After the approval of the reports of the committees a short and clear account of the organization and work of the Group of judges as a whole was presented and embodied with reports of the committees, all of which was formally adopted as the General Report, signed by the chairman, Mr. James L. Claghorne, and by the secretary.

This report, with all the books and papers in the office, I placed in the hands of Mr. Walker. I have before me what professes to be the "Gen-

eral Report and Awards of the Judges of Group XXVII." It is an official document, "edited by Francis A. Walker, Chief of the Bureau of Awards," and is just published. This so-called "General Report" is prefaced with the following note :

"INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, 1876.

"Professor F. A. WALKER, *Chief of the Bureau of Awards*.

"Sir : I forward on behalf of the judges of Group XXVII, their reports upon Art Exhibits in the International Exhibition.

"Very respectfully,

"JAMES L. CLAGHORNE, *Chairman*."

Following this are two reports—one upon painting and sculpture by John F. Wier, the other upon industrial designs, etc., by Donald G. Mitchell.

I desire through your journal to publish my earnest protest against the action of the Exposition authorities in this case. This is not the General Report of the judges of Group XXVII. Mr. Mitchell's paper should have formed a part of the General Report. The document from Mr. Wier never was in the General Report. It never was offered in any of the regular sessions of the Committee on Painting or Sculpture, or in any of the regular meetings of the Group. Other members of that committee proposed to make reports, which they desired to have adopted, but the judges of the Group would never have consented to adopt as their collective judgment the individual opinions of any one of their members. This official document, then, is not the General Report of Group XXVII. The General Report has been suppressed by Mr. Walker, and the criticism of Mr. Wier substituted in its place. I make these assertions with positive knowledge of the facts. So far as Mr. Claghorne is concerned in this affair, when he wrote the letter given above, it would be charity to suppose he did not attach the full value to the meaning of words. The action of Mr. Walker certainly needs explanation.

GEO. WARD NICHOLS, *Secretary Group XXVII.*

CINCINNATI, December 17, 1877.

To THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : The explanation required by Mr. Nichols is cheerfully given. The official action of the judges of the Philadelphia Exhibition was originally limited to offering recommendations for awards to individual exhibitors. It was the expressed intention of the Centennial Commission to reduce Group-action to a minimum, and substitute the discretion and responsibility of an individual judge for the jury or caucus system which had prevailed at European exhibitions.

By a resolution of the Commission in June, the judges of the several Groups were requested to make reports of a general character upon the display in their respective departments. These reports it has been my duty to edit for publication. When I came to Group XXVII, I found what Mr. Nichols calls its General Report. This covered forty pages of manuscript, of which not more than nine full pages, in the aggregate, were devoted to description or discussion of the Fine Arts Exhibition, in the four departments of Painting, Sculpture, Photography, and Lithography and Engraving. The remainder of the "report" consisted of lists of the successful exhibitors (elsewhere printed), and of the journal of the Group, detailing its sessions, resolutions, etc. In no case have the minutes of a Group been published, nor would there be any propriety in such publication. But Mr. Nichols thinks there was a special reason for publishing the Journal of Group XXVII, inasmuch as it contains the resolutions under which the judges made their awards. This fact would of itself constitute an additional reason against such a publication. The record in question contains resolutions and minutes in direct contravention of the rules of adjudication established by the Centennial Commission. It is notorious that the action of the Fine Arts judges caused a great deal of trouble at the time, and involved the reassembling in August of those judges who still remained in the country, in order that the work might be completed according to the system prescribed. Even had the minutes of other Groups been published, the Commission could not have stultified itself by printing a record of proceedings had in direct opposition to its authority, by judges who owed their official character solely to its own appointment.

As to accepting the few pages of remarks, more or less critical, which were scattered through the Journal in question, as a compliance with the requirements of a general report, it was manifestly not to be thought of. I therefore, on the 20th of January, addressed Mr. Claghorne, of Philadelphia, the Chairman of the Group, requesting such a report from him. Mr. Claghorne replied, expressing strongly the opinion that a report should be rendered, but stating that he did not feel able personally to undertake its preparation. I then addressed myself to Prof. Wier, Di-

rector of the Yale School of the Fine Arts, a judge in Group XXVII., who, on my urgent solicitation, produced the admirable paper which is now before the public, and which will form a most agreeable feature of the permanent literature of the Exhibition. FRANCIS A. WALKER.

NEW HAVEN, December 29, 1877.

CONCERNING THE CHANGE IN THE STANDARD OF VALUE BY THE DEMONETIZATION OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Sir: I have been refreshing my combativeness by looking over your article: "Why the Demonetization of Silver did not Attract Popular Attention."

The demonetization of silver is the joint product of a section of the coinage regulations and a section of the Revised Statutes—neither precisely expressing the purpose, but together juggling the silver option away from the people.

Allow me to say that the only discussion of the question was in speeches that no one heard and in documents that nobody read. I have advertised in vain for a member of Congress who can say that he voted for the demonetization of silver, knowing when he cast his vote what it meant. I have appealed to the press for an editorial article, published in the year 1873-4, for or against the change from the double to the single standard, and the conclusion is that no such article appeared in any American newspaper. President Grant wrote a letter six months after he signed the act of coinage regulation in 1873, proving that he did not know what he had done.

There was an open attempt to demonetize silver. Senator Sherman reported a bill for that purpose June 9, 1868. Senator Morgan, of New York, made the conclusive report against the bill that it was a movement to change the coinage that did not proceed from the people, and that a country making such a change should be comparatively free from debt.

The demonetization of silver that occurred without public knowledge I conclude did not proceed from the people, and the indebtedness, public and private, in the country was largely increased between 1868 and 1873. The fact that the attempt was openly made to take from silver the office and character of money, and that it failed, raises the presumption that the noiseless successful attempt five years later was contrived to be secret.

You quote Dr. Linderman to show that "the silver dollar had become obsolete, in fact." In the first place I may be permitted to say that Dr. Linderman is not good authority. He has not missed an opportunity for several years to disparage silver as money and to invent excuses for the change in the money standard. This does not, at this distance, seem to be a necessary part of the performance of the duties of his office. In the second place, the doctor knew enough to know that *the presence of silver in the standard* was of vast importance to the American people. Then notice that when the old dollar was dropped, the trade-dollar was introduced. The dollar of 412½ grains of standard silver was worth 103, and was legal tender without limit. Why make a dollar of 420 grains, and limit it as lawful money to five-dollar payments? Simply because the purpose was to change the standard of value—that there should be no lawful silver money. The pretence that the dollar of 420 grains was wanted for the Chinese trade was not true. The trade-dollar was invented for use as the juggler's false piece in the manipulation by which the silver dollar was abstracted from the coinage and the money measure changed.

Permit me one more paragraph. You say:

"But then, it is said, the Demonetization Act was a speculative measure. The men who 'engineered' it knew silver was going to fall, and therefore determined to get it out of the way as a legal tender for the benefit of the bondholders, who desired payment in gold. How could they know?"

I desire to tell you how they could know—just how they must have known. The object of the money-changers—the experts who had the alteration of the standard of value in charge—was to impose upon us the single standard, that is, to make our money measure of one metal instead of two metals. They had knowledge that the discarded metal would depreciate—that the metal in which they placed the standard exclusively would appreciate. The history of money metals in all times told them that. It was a scientific proposition, an axiom, that silver, demonetized by the very country that produced it would decline in the metal market. They couldn't help knowing it.

M. HALSTEAD.

CINCINNATI, December 22, 1877.

[A proper reply to our article would have shown, not that the

general public did not notice the demonetization of silver, or that some members of Congress voted for it without knowing what they were doing (large numbers of them vote in this state of mind on all financial questions)—for these things we have admitted—but that the promoters of the measure avoided or omitted some of the usual means of publicity. Mr. Halstead does not attempt to show this, because he knows it to be untrue, and knows that any detailed account of the process by which silver was demonetized, such as we published weeks ago, makes the charge of "conspiracy" and "juggle" and "noiselessness" very ridiculous. A proper reply would also have given some reason for believing that, had popular attention been called to the measure, a popular protest would have been raised against it; but on this point also Mr. Halstead is judiciously silent. That Senator Morgan made a report against demonetization in 1868 does not prove that there would have been any popular opposition to it in 1873. The monetary situation in the Western world had greatly changed within those five years, and the assertion that a country discarding silver should be comparatively free from debt is one which owes all its value to circumstances. Applied to a poor country about to demonetize by recoinage at great expense, such as Germany has incurred, it may have some weight; applied to a rich country about to demonetize without any cost at all, it is simply an opinion like another. Honest payment of debts in silver by the United States is no harder now than it was in 1868—that is, silver will now, as then, bring its market value in Europe. Mr. Halstead's objection to Dr. Linderman's authority seems to have no better basis than that Mr. Halstead does not agree with him, and is, therefore, a roundabout way of begging the question; we, on like grounds, repudiate Mr. Halstead himself, and pronounce his assertion that Dr. Linderman "knew enough to know" that Mr. Halstead is right about silver, one of the oddest propositions we have ever seen in a financial discussion.

Mr. Halstead's mode of proving that the promoters of the demonetization knew silver was going to fall, is substantially the young lady's argument—"they knew because they knew." In what he says on this point Mr. Halstead's confusion of mind reaches its climax. The source of all his delusions on this silver question is, as we have before now taken the liberty of pointing out to him, his confounding "standard" and "legal tender." He evidently thinks these synonymous terms, whereas what they describe are totally different things. Silver before 1873 was a legal tender, but it was not a standard or "money measure." Neither Mr. Halstead nor any one else in the United States had for forty years before 1873 bought, sold, or contracted in silver, or had it in mind in any mercantile transaction, or used it in the settlement of any account, or even seen it, except in small change; and yet it was all this time a "legal tender"—that is, a thing in which a man *might* pay his debts if he chose. The "money-changers" and "conspirators," therefore, made no change in the standard of value—they did so they would have roused the country; but they did make a change in the legal tender. For similar reasons Mr. Halstead's deduction from "the history of money metals," and his "scientific proposition," and "axiom," have no application whatever to the case before us. Whether they have any application to any case, or whether they are not the product of an excited silver imagination, we have no space here to discuss. The demonetization of a metal depreciates it *if it is a metal in use*—that is, if at the time of its demonetization it is the active standard of the country (not legal tender); if bargains are made and accounts settled in it. In 1873 silver was not the standard in use in this country, and had not been for years. It was not in circulation, even as small change. Our demonetization, therefore, exercised and could exercise no influence on the market price of it. It threw none of it out of use, and, as a matter of fact, the price did not begin to decline for two years afterwards, or until the Germans began to sell it heavily and the mines began to increase their yield. No "expert" or "money-changer" was simple-minded enough to suppose that he could lower the value of a commodity for which there was absolutely no demand, by enacting that people should have no further need of it.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DODD & MEAD have brought out the second volume of Clarence Cook's edition of Lübke's "Outlines of the History of Art."—The *Galaxy* has been absorbed in the *Atlantic Monthly*. The announcement of H. O. Houghton & Co. to this effect intimates that some of the features of the defunct magazine will be preserved.—The changes in the New York Code introduced by the recent legislation at Albany have produced no less than four volumes, and several more will, we believe, be called for by the legislation of the next session in completion of the work. We have already noticed Mr. Throop's Albany edition of the Code. An edition of much greater practical utility to lawyers, Bliss's "New York Annotated Code," has just been issued by Baker, Voorhis & Co. It is a large volume of 1,245 pages, with references to all the cases decided under the old Code of Procedure (these must number nearly ten thousand), and with explanatory notes showing the changes involved in the new; and is a monument of professional industry.—Mr. Charles H. Moore, who has been for upwards of a year past in Venice, has recently sent to the Art Club at Harvard three copies of the Old Masters which he has made under the most favorable conditions, thanks to Mr. Ruskin's influence. One is a small copy of the head and bust of Carpatico's reclining Saint Ursula; another represents the group of Apostles in the lower part of Titian's "Annunciation," and the third is from Tintoretto. Mr. Moore is now in Florence.—The enlargement of the Harvard College Library building was finished during the summer. We are sorry to say that the apprehensions as to the success of it which we expressed when it was first proposed have been realized. The original building is not lighted by artificial light, and is always closed in winter at sunset. A great difficulty has always been that workers there had to cease their studies a half hour or more before that time, and that the card catalogue, kept in drawers, was often inaccessible long before sunset. Yet the enlargement, being perversely upon the east side, must suffer from want of light even more than the old portion. Another difficulty is that the room for the cataloguers, being one story high and having a glass roof and looking southward, must be an intolerably hot working-room in the summer.—Mr. U. H. Crocker has been making some interesting communications to the Boston *Advertiser* on the controverted subject of the date of the old "Book of Possessions." He leaves it more than probable that the date is earlier than that assigned by Mr. Whitmore, and that the first part of the book is in the handwriting of William Aspinwall, the Notary Public of 1644-1651.

—From C. F. Tretbar, of Steinway Hall, we have received numerous specimens of a series of "Analytical Reviews of Classical and Modern Compositions," for the use of amateurs at musical entertainments, and for the better appreciation of the beautiful in music. The best way of arriving at a thorough understanding of a complicated composition is of course to hear it repeatedly; but, unfortunately, the number of concerts given in our cities is as yet so limited, and the list of works which demand a hearing so great, that frequent repetition is out of the question. A preliminary description of the characteristics and contents of a composition, therefore, cannot but be of some use to the ordinary concert-goer who is to hear the piece for the first or second time. Such an analysis should give a brief account of the circumstances under which the work was written; of the leading emotional ideas which the author intended to convey by it, if any such are recorded; of the number of the *opus*, showing how it is related to his earlier or his later style—for composers differ even more than authors in their own manner and style at different periods of their lives; and of the first performance of the work and its reception by the public and the critics. Finally, the leading melodic and harmonic ideas or motives should be given in musical notation, so that by playing them over several times on the piano the reader may fix them in his memory, and consequently take a greater interest in observing how they are developed and treated by the master. If, judged by such a standard, the "Reviews" before us are not all that could be desired, still, as far as they go, they are better than the majority of the newspaper criticisms which most people are so anxious to read before they pronounce an opinion on the new pieces heard at a concert. The paucity of musical books in our great libraries makes it difficult to compile all the facts desirable in an analysis of a great composition; but for future numbers much valuable information might be obtained from the bound volumes of the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. The more modern the composition analyzed the more, as a rule, is there to be said about it, for the contents become more and more defi-

nite, until we come to programme music, pure and simple. On the other hand, some of the Symphonies of the older "classical" period, being little more than pleasing combinations of sounds for their own sake, with no underlying feelings, do not call for any descriptive remarks.

—The following recent botanical publications are deserving of notice. "Arboretum Segrezianum: Énumération des Arbres et Arbrisseaux cultivés à Segrez," by A. Lavallée (Paris: J. B. Bailliére et fils, 1877), is a beautifully-printed volume of some 300 pages, containing a catalogue of more than 3,000 species and varieties of ligneous plants made by M. Lavallée on his ancestral estate at Segrez, not far from Paris, with their synonyms and native countries, and with reference to the botanical works in which they are figured and described. In a short preface, M. Lavallée describes the difficulties he has encountered in bringing together and properly arranging in scientific order his vast collections—difficulties which will be appreciated by those who have undertaken a similar work. He also gives a brief historical sketch of the most important collections of exotic trees which have been found in France from the middle of the sixteenth century down to the present time, many of which are of peculiar interest to Americans from the large number of American trees which the Michauxs and other French travellers in this country introduced into them. The "Arboretum Segrezianum" will be found very useful not only to the professional keepers of scientific collections of living plants, but to those who desire to improve their estates by intelligent planting—a class which it is desirable should largely increase in this country. The few errors which we have observed in the body of the catalogue are strictly technical, and will naturally disappear in a second edition. A volume of plates, with descriptions of some of the rare and little-known species of the Arboretum, is promised.—Fern-books are numerous and popular in England, and the growing interest taken in ferns all over our country, both by amateur collectors and by serious students, may well justify Prof. Daniel C. Eaton's undertaking ("The Ferns of North America," Part I, Salem, Mass.: S. E. Cassino). It is no small one: for, as the work proceeds in bi-monthly parts, it is intended to give colored figures of all the species of ferns indigenous to the United States. The whole ground is pre-empted in the first fasciculus, now before us, which, besides appealing to popular attention with our climbing fern (*Lycopodium palmatum*), contains a new fern from the southern end of Florida, and another from southern California. The latter, "Mrs. Cooper's Lip-fern," is wholly new to science: the former is a tropical spleenwort, of the bird-nest group, recently found within our borders. As the name of the editor warrants, this work is to have true scientific value, as well as popular interest. The five pages of quarto letterpress attest the author's aptitude for popular description. The neat synopsis of the known United States species of *Cheilanthes*, and the technical characters generally, are as useful to the botanist as to the fern-amateur. The plates, in chromo-lithography from drawings by Mr. Emerton, are excellent. That of the two species of Lip-fern is most to our liking. By gas-light, that of the Climbing Fern is too dull, and that of the Spleenwort too blue, although otherwise admirable.—"Notes on Botrychium Simplex," by Geo. E. Davenport (Salem, 1877), claims a word of mention here. It is a quarto pamphlet in the same style, of 22 pages and two plates in heliotype, crowded with outline figures of all the various forms assumed by this little fern and its two nearest relatives, with which it has been more or less confounded. This confounded—we mean confounding—group of ferns has given the botanists and fern-collectors no end of trouble.

—The recent refusal of a Congregational counsel to instal the Rev. Mr. Merriam at Indian Orchard, Mass., because he believed there was a chance of salvation for the "impenitent dead," has led to some systematic enquiries how far Mr. Merriam was singular in his belief in his own denomination and profession, and how far the action of the council met with clerical approval. The Springfield *Republican* asked the Congregational clergy of Western Massachusetts by circular, (1) whether they taught that "endless conscious suffering awaits the impenitent," and (2), whether they would have voted to instal Mr. Merriam. The Boston *Congregationalist* subsequently addressed a slightly larger number of pastors (100) picked from all over the country, and has printed their replies in full to the questions (1) whether they thought there had been "any essential departure from the faith in the doctrine of eternal punishment," and (2) "how far a belief in this doctrine should be insisted on as a prerequisite to the ministry in our Congregational churches." The *Congregationalist* was more successful in eliciting responses than the *Republican*, yet the silence of even a fifth remains to be explained on some other ground than negli-

gence. Taking the two circulars together, a large majority of the respondents teach the doctrine of endless punishment, and are of opinion that it is held substantially unimpaired by the laity. A smaller majority would have voted with the council against Mr. Merriam, and insist upon the application of the doctrine as a test of qualification for the ministry. The minority show all degrees of laxity in doctrine and practice. One minister says : " My church has never had in its creed one word in reference to the endlessness " of punishment ; another : " My church believes in evitable retribution for sin, and that the everlastingly incorrigible will suffer everlasting," and adds for himself, " Belief in eternal damnation is not enough to make a good minister, nor peculiar views about it enough to spoil one."

—There are several obvious reasons why these enquiries were misdirected, if the object was really to ascertain the vitality of the dogma of hell. Ministers whose function it is to preach it—who live by it, so to speak—are naturally the last to observe and the most loath to confess publicly its decay, or to counsel " letting it slide " altogether. A more pertinent series of questions for them would be : Do you in your preaching lay the same stress upon the existence of a hell as you once did ? Do you rely upon it as much as you once did to arouse the thoughtless or alarm the impenitent ? Do you attach to it in theory or in practice anything like the importance, either as a dogma necessary to salvation or as an instrument of conversion, which the preachers of even fifty years ago did ? Do you regard it as an indispensable sanction of morality ? How do you account for the decline in purely doctrinal preaching ? A candid answer to these enquiries, with the writer's name enclosed in a sealed envelope, not for publication, would certainly throw more light upon the matter in dispute than all that the *Republican* and *Congregationalist* have accomplished. In the midst of the discussion there have been two remarkable signs of the tendency of the doctrine of eternal punishment. On Sunday week, Mr. Beecher announced his disbelief in hell in terms borrowed from the early Unitarians and Universalists, and of undiminished intensity—terms which used to bring upon them denunciations of infidelity such as the religious press of our day reserves chiefly for Thomas Paine. Across the ocean, Canon Farrar had already been declaring in Westminster Abbey of the Scriptural words "hell," "damnation," and "everlasting" :

" I say unhesitatingly, I say with the fullest right to speak, and with the necessary knowledge, I say with the calmest and most unflinching sense of responsibility, standing here in the sight of God and our Saviour, and it may be of the angels and spirits of the dead, that not one of these words ought to stand any longer in our English Bible ; and that, being in our present acceptation of them simply mistranslations, they most unquestionably will not stand in the revised version of the Bible, if the revisers have understood their duty."

—For the newest thing in "British interests" we must undoubtedly await the reassembling of Parliament, but all signs point to the seizure of Egypt as the immediate objective of the Sultan's best friend. In the meantime it is instructive to notice the same "interests" at work elsewhere *i.e.* *partibus infidelium*, and how naïvely a British subject protests against them when his conscience is shocked at the vista which they suddenly open up to him. For instance, an interesting article on Formosa in the *Geographical Magazine* for December concludes as follows :

" The question has been often asked, Should such an island be left in the hands of such a government as the Chinese ? To argue for a moment that the Chinese Government is in any respect superior, say to the British, would be ridiculous ; but to suggest that therefore the Chinese should be deprived of part of their possessions is highly improper. Their sovereignty over the island is better established than ours was in New Zealand a very short time ago. They are employing their military in making roads through the savage districts (the most effectual way of eventually subduing them), and they seem anxious to develop the resources of the country. In more than one European newspaper there have been suggestions as to annexation ; but an attempt at such a thing would, in my opinion, be nothing short of robbery."

We think we are right in inferring that it is British annexation which this writer squints at. It only remains to add that Russia would ask no better excuse for annexing Bulgaria than the superiority of her government to that of Turkey, and that the Chinese administration in Formosa would not suffer by comparison with the Turkish north of the Balkans.

—M. Lenormant's little brochure, 'Les dieux de Babylone et de l'Assyrie,' is a popular essay on the divinities of Mesopotamia, and is notable for wholly omitting the Bel-Dagan (the biblical Dagon), who figures in his Commentary on Berossus as one of the two manifestations of Bel, the second god of the first triad. The Assyrian fish-gods have been very confusing, every one of the triad being supposed to take his turn at this rôle

—Anu as the Oannes who arose from the Erythraean Sea, Bel as Dagon, and Hea as the god of the waters. M. Lenormant now relieves this confusion by entirely dropping the fish element from all except Hea. The inscriptions have never given any authority for attributing to Anu this character, and it has been predicated entirely upon the resemblance between his name and that of the Oannes of Berossus. But Helladius gives the name of Oes to the Erythraean god who taught men wisdom, and this name, as well as the Aos of Damascus, may quite as easily be identified with Hea, whose name is more accurately transliterated *Ea*, although Rawlinson's "Hea" is more familiar to English readers. This Oannes of Berossus is more accurately given "Eahanes" by Hyginus, which Lenormant supposes to be from the Accadian *Ea-khan*, meaning Hea the fish. We presume he will soon publish a fuller justification of this important simplification of Assyrian mythology, and will tell us what is to become of Dagon, whose name occurs in the first line of the 'Standard Inscription of Assurnazirpal,' of which half a dozen copies exist in this country, and which begins : "This is the palace of Assurnazirpal, servant of Assur, priest of Bel and Adar, beloved by Anu and Dagon."

—The prolonged strife over the "music of the future" in Germany has given rise to a curious work of which the following is a literal translation of the title : 'A Wagner Lexicon. Dictionary of Incivility, containing coarse, scornful, odious, and slanderous Expressions which have been used against Meister Richard Wagner, his works and his disciples by enemies and railers. Collected for the mind's amusement in idle hours by Wilhelm Tappert' (Leipzig : Fritzsch, 1877). This remarkable collection is arranged in alphabetical order, commencing with *Abderiten* and ending with *Zwilfergeschöpfe*. Each word is accompanied by enough of the sentence in which it occurs to complete the sense, the name of the writer and the place in which it is to be found, together with a short comment by the editor in most cases. Most of the material of the work, which is a book of fifty octavo pages, is drawn from German sources, chiefly from the newspapers, but some English and French writers contribute to it. The "Ausdrücke" used are of a varied character. Wagner is called a rat, a goose, a wasp, and a werewolf. Spielhagen nicknames him "a ratcatcher"; Gutzkow, "a musical Heliogabalus"; and a French critic, "the Marat of music." His music is frequently styled "circus and cat music," and by Paul Heyse "a pathetic cancan." The "Rheingold" is an "aquarium," according to another, and its music "a three-hours long musical goose-march." A Berlin paper speaks of the style of Wagner as "furchtbar quatsch," whatever that may be ; and a Vienna critic makes him out a Jew, on account of his long "Talmud-Schnüfflernase." After all, in looking over this collection, one is struck with the poverty of the German language in vituperative terms. A single Maine backwoodsman or a California miner, when excited, would display powers of expression which would fill these German musical critics with envy.

—Some idea of the impetus given to English philology in Germany may be gathered from the circumstance that not only are there two new quarterlies devoted exclusively to it (*Anglia* and *Englische Studien*), but the older quarterlies are assigning to it a large proportion of their space. Thus, in Herrig's *Archiv*, Nos. 3 and 4, 142 pages are filled with Horstmann's text of the Gospel Histories in the Homilies of the Vernon MS., Callenberg's essay on Layamon and Orm, and Tiessen's "Contributions to the Elucidation of the Text of Shakspere." By far the most important article in this year's *Archiv*, however, is the one by Dr. Grabow on the "Standard (*dialectfreie*) Pronunciation of High German." The author's investigations into what is and what is not to be regarded as orthodox, unprovincial pronunciation are most thorough, and are based not only upon the history of the language, but also upon the physiological facts of speech and the tabulated statistics of the various German provinces. We commend, e.g., p. 435 as a model of clear statistical arrangement, whereby the eye sees at a glance the development of the *sh* (*sch*) sound from *s* in composition with *e* and other consonants. We hope, also, that no future writer of German grammars will venture to ignore or neglect the results of Dr. Grabow's research, and that henceforth even our most empirical and superficial manuals will have something like scientific accuracy in their treatment of German sounds.

—Those familiar with German methods need not be reminded of the value of the materials scattered about in school-programmes, doctoral dissertations, etc. Hermann Varnhagen has recently published, as appendix to Schmitz's 'Encyclopædia of the Philology of Modern Languages,' a systematic catalogue of programmes, dissertations, and "habilitation" lectures upon philology in general, and especially upon English and

French, that have appeared since 1825. At least we conjecture the date *a quo* from a passage in the preface, although the editor has nowhere stated it explicitly. The number of titles is about 1,650. The introduction gives a condensed history of the programme and dissertation in Germany, and a critique of previous bibliographical works on the subject. Dr. Varnhagen waives all claims to completeness or perfect accuracy, and whoever has had the least practical experience of the difficulty of tracking such ephemeral productions will heartily sympathize with him in his regrets at not being able to do better. Suffice it to say, on the other hand, that he has produced an exceedingly useful catalogue, which should be in the hands of all thorough-going scholars. So far as we have been able to examine, notably in the Old-English lists, we have observed no serious omissions, but on the contrary a surprising degree of fulness.

JOSEPH COOK'S 'BIOLOGY.'*

THE "Boston Monday lectureship" promises to be a three years' wonder. Entirely unheard of till a year or two since, Mr. Cook is, now that his lectures are published in book-form, sure of having his words read and pondered among all sects of evangelical orthodoxy throughout the country—at any rate, his influence is no longer local. Moreover, the "lectureship" is now a business. A management has been organized, tickets are sold, and advertisements printed, and there are indications that another year it may "travel."

One of the chief "strategic points" of the lectureship is to evoke hostile criticism. Its success, and even existence, depends on whether an audience of clients, eagerly applauding every *coup* of their protagonist against threatening and heretical 'isms and 'ologies, can continue to believe that his shafts cause dismay among all orders of intellectual unregeneracy. Hence, in spite of the animosity with which Mr. Cook has here and there been assailed, many of his friends are beginning to complain of a "conspiracy of silence" on essential points. On the other hand, there are many of opposite bias who, urging his many misstatements of fact, his illicit inferences, the inadequate method with which the ultimate and outlying questions of all human knowledge are discussed, and the bad cookery (if so vile a pun may be quoted) with which scientific authorities are seasoned and served up, have also complained that thus far there has been no adequate and well-digested verdict respecting his work. The explanation is not far to seek. It is found in the growing belief that Mr. Cook is a sincere enthusiast who has questioned and doubted, and has reached at last the consolation—rare enough in these days—of unreserved conviction. Such a man, however crass or erratic his opinions, deserves a certain respect.

Again, he is comparatively unmolested, because his work is felt to be of significance for the culture of the New England clergy. He is liberalizing, if not even rationalizing, orthodoxy itself, by inoculating the most unscientific class of educated men with his small science. Now—thanks to his hardy courage—rural clergymen and studious laymen may be seen every Monday at the libraries and bookstores of Boston asking for Beale, Draper, Carpenter, etc., with the laudable purpose of following out Mr. Cook's course of reading. Now, the most unsuspecting theological student may visit any German University, and even *hospitieren* with Helmholtz, Wundt, and possibly Haeckel himself, if a few score of Mr. Cook's prophylactic axioms are well graven upon his memory, without danger of becoming "unchristianized or shaken in the temper of his faith." His creed, indeed, is as meagre, yet as unmistakable, as the tags nailed up in place of scenery on the early English stage, admonishing the audience never to forget that, although the language, costumes, and plot were contemporary, still all was really in ancient Roman. So, although we hear of "neural tremors," of "the white-gray keyboard of the brain," and are challenged to account for the "perfect eye of the trilobite," and taught why "variability of species is a lessening quality," we are constantly assured that all this is Christianity and not modern science; for "the microscope begins to have visions of immortality." "Everything scientific is Biblical, and everything Biblical is scientific." "Even the scientific method is of theological origin." Lotze, and even Helmholtz and Wundt, are "on their knees before a personal God." Of course all this is extremely vicious, much in the same way, indeed, as the infernal trappings on the stand of the early conjurers, who, instead of frankly acknowledging that all was the skilful sleight of human hands, appealed in puzzling abracadabras to extra-mundane agencies. Let us not be misunderstood. We do not pro-

pose to dispute, or even discuss, Mr. Cook's religious convictions, though probably none of his friends realizes how subtly the processes of secularization are accelerated by his methods, or how many of the impediments of orthodoxy are one after another silently abandoned while a whole corps of the theological army is being mobilized. To have occasioned this wholesome ferment is a didactic triumph which a wiser, more learned, better poised mind could never have achieved.

Mr. Cook's science is exceedingly "small"—for the most part, indeed, scarcely more than an advertisement of a department of research rapidly growing in importance, and which happens never to have been popularized in this country. His information on the subject of physiological psychology may be very briefly summarized: but to correct his errors and inconsistencies and make his crudeness patent to his hearers would require nothing less than a well-digested text-book on the subject. His uncritical credulity towards scientific authorities upon his own side is seen in his naïve acceptance of two of Ferrier's most conjectural statements—viz.: "Physiological activity of the brain is not altogether coextensive with its psychological function"; and "Mental operations are still capable of being carried on in their completeness through the agency of one hemisphere"; and of Beale's continued implication that psychic changes cause physical changes, and not the reverse.

That Mr. Cook is not well informed in physiological psychology is not surprising, and by no means so harmful as it would be in a scientific lecture-room. But what apology can we offer when he affirms that "the Boston lectureship is abreast of the latest German investigations"? If he would only extend his reading beyond Carpenter—whose work he calls "the best discussion of the relation of mind and body in modern times"—and a few others, to Wundt and Helmholtz, who are only names to him, and to Hughlings Jackson, Fechner, Vulpian, Schiff, Horwitz-Flechsig, and scores of others who have lately made original contributions towards the solution of the question of the relation between the nervous system and consciousness, and perhaps even discuss such subjects as aphasia, inhibition, muscular sense, Meynert's schematization, etc., all of which lie directly in his path, but of which he seems never to have heard, his pedagogies would be less incisive. Mr. Cook himself, and still more his unscientific audience, who respond by "applause," "sensation," and occasional "amens," to so many of his wildest assertions, grossly violate that good old precept of Coleridge—viz., be sure you are not ignorant of an author's understanding before you affect to understand his ignorance.

Of his studied forensic against Huxley's bathybius, which for five years caused men to "tremble before the strong negation of the supernatural," but which is now a "myth and byword of derision," it is enough to remember that Huxley has long since abandoned his invention, and that Mr. Cook grossly misquotes and misrepresents what he said about it. Yet in elaborating the thesis that everything organic, even "your molecular brain, is first woven by your bioplasts," he goes beyond even Beale's widest speculations, from whom his charts, facts, language, and deductions upon this subject are borrowed; forgetting Mr. Stirling's wholesome admonition, that if all life is identified in protoplasm, it must be differentiated in protoplasms. Whatever is meant by the phrase, "An involution must precede every evolution," it is hard to see how this compels the belief in a personal God or an immortal soul. The concessions of evolutionists are undisputed and familiar: so comprehensive a theory of the universe must long remain more or less provisional; it is a question of the balance of probabilities and not of exact demonstration. Yet, even if it be true, Mr. Cook thinks it worth while strategically to urge that the body of religious truth is in no way affected, and to insist that the teleological, which is the one of "thirty forms of the theory of evolution" that he prefers, is, like Darwin himself, probably theistic. Of course, in contemplating the ultimate questions of human knowledge respecting nature or man, as revealed by the telescope, the microscope, and in the laboratory, the poetic faculties of men everywhere, as Mr. Shairp has so well shown, are prone to mythologize. *Aberglaube* is often truly aesthetic, and religion, whatever else it may be, is always the poetry of life. This is well; far better, indeed, than the blank philosophy of nescience. But let us not confound poetry with science, nor forget that there is no adequate proof of the dicta of theology in nature. Dogmatism in this direction may be more respectable, but it is certainly no more "educated" than the crass, obsolescent materialism whose decent corpse Mr. Cook takes pleasure in mutilating. This should be a wholesome warning to scientific men who are disposed to pass from their specialty, particularly in their more popular utterances, to speculations on the score of the universe: unless, indeed, they wish to be immortal.

* "Boston Monday Lectures, Biology, with Preludes on Current Events. By Joseph Cook." Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

ized, as Comte has been by the socialists, for their vagaries. Such an apotheosis has already begun for the unfortunate Lotze. No writer can be more aesthetic, modest, fonder of the sacredness of "reposeful mental states," more averse not only to dogmatism but even to system-making, more anxious to make philosophy merely the "general expression of individual culture" than one who, "without assuming to arrive at fully demonstrated results, nevertheless finds in reflection and in conversation upon fundamental problems the noblest occupation of human life," and who, in the "Mikrokosmos," takes great pains to contrast what he understands by the phrase "personality of God" in every essential respect with human personality. We can hardly object if such a writer fancies the soul to live and move "in the fibreless parenchyma of the brain"; but the climax of absurdity is reached when Mr. Cook dramatically personates him as standing upon the Tremont Temple platform, swinging an apocalyptic millstone and rending materialism "thus—thus," as Mr. Cook tears his notes before a transported audience. The fact is that Mr. Cook is a neologist, poorly trained in the history of philosophical thought, and still more crude in his psychological analysis. God, materialism, immortality, etc., are for him terms of fixed and exact connotation, to be used without falter in an endless chain of syllogisms, instead of exceedingly composite concepts, varying with every shade of individual intelligence and experience.

A man of such vigorous health and of such robust magnetic personality as Mr. Cook, of such assurance and florid eloquence, who lives in what Hegel wittily terms the animal kingdom of mind, can always gather about himself an organization of curious or undervitalized women who love to be thrilled, of business and professional men who love to hear the best commonplaces about literature, politics, and religion, etc., and of somewhat uninstructed "good" people generally. Some such tendencies are already manifest in the "lectureship," and whether it results in a new "society," or something altogether new and strange, we would by no means disparage the possible public usefulness of any such consummation. Although as dramatic performer Mr. Cook violates all *Hume's* advice to the players, he still moves, and even thrills, his hearers. Though as philosopher his discussions seem more and more manufactured, they are still scarcely less than oracular for his disciples. We only hope the new departure which is inevitable will be well advised, and when he "settles"—which he should do before the heyday of his fame fades—that it will be to work of a more permanent sort.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S DIARY.*

THE volume before us, the twelfth, is the last instalment of what is certainly one of the most valuable contributions ever made to the sources of American history. From the first to the last its characteristics are the same; it is still the faithful record of the acts, the thoughts, the feelings of a very remarkable man, the story of a long life told day by day, while all the freshness of the present was about it, and covering nearly sixty-five of almost the most important years of all history. We are not unaware that the trustworthiness of this class of evidence has been called in question. Among the sceptics was Mr. Calhoun. Yet when some of his own acts were misstated, he invoked Mr. Adams's diary as bearing witness in his favor. The kind of witness which a diary bears is precisely of that kind which the historian who paints from the life requires. Without it we should never have had "Livy's pictured pugs" nor Macaulay's photographs of an age that has passed away. History is never so useful as when she tells the whole truth.

One of the most prominent traits of Mr. Adams's character, as painted in these volumes, is his steadfast adherence to the Scripture teachings of his childhood. He began the study of the Bible when a boy, and still made it the subject of his daily meditations in his ripe old age. No sooner was one reading ended than another was begun, and every reading was brought to the test of practical application. Mr. Adams looked upon self-examination as a duty, and set himself to the task with a grave conscientiousness. Common usages would have called him a religious man, and such he rightly thought himself. If any sect could claim him for its own it was doubtless the Unitarian. In this and in another way, also, he differed from Mr. Jefferson. Mr. Jefferson was a theorist, starting from an abstraction and following it logically to its remotest consequences; but when it reached those consequences he often became afraid and would have drawn back. Mr. Adams never was afraid of anything. Like his father, he always had the courage to stand by his opinions, and none the less

* Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Edited by his son, Charles Francis Adams, Vol. XII. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

resolutely from their not having always been in perfect harmony. Yet it may be truly said of him that men seldom live so long without changing more.

We have also called attention to Mr. Adams's bitterness. Years never diminished it. It would be falsifying history to conceal it. We give a characteristic specimen, June 15, 1841:

"I found the House in a chaos of confusion, with two stupid resolutions against the Bank of the United States, reported from the Committee on Elections by Chесelden Ellis, one of the weakest and most worthless turncoats in the House. They had been sprung this morning without notice or consultation with the minority of the Committee of Elections, and, by the screw of the previous question, moved by Ellis, were crammed down with the yeas and nays—one hundred and eight to sixty-eight. A meaner and more despicable fraud was never perpetrated."

Mr. Adams's fondness for writing verses never flags. He can never say "no" to a lady's earnest solicitation for a couple of stanzas. The wife of a clerk in the Treasury Department asks for some :

"I have little acquaintance with this lady," he writes, "but she has been very courteous to my wife and family, and earnestly solicits that I would write some verses addressed to her. I did write a couple of stanzas, which puzzled me in the composition not a little; for I began with a line of seven syllables, and in following out the verse fell unconsciously into the blunder of mingling seven and eight syllable lines together. I discovered it only by the want of harmony in the lines upon reading them over. I never knew before the peculiar property of the seven-syllable line, which consists in the uniform location of the accent and emphasis on the first syllable. The inadvertent admission of a word accented on the second syllable changes the measure to the eight-syllable verse, and the mixture of the two measures produces dissonance. It took me an hour to Procrustize my lines to Mrs. Morris. She was here this day with Miss Paine. Miss Paine left word that I must not write any more verses for ladies."

The following passage recalls the way in which the Southern Unionists succumbed to secession :

"I met Mr. Thompson at the *Intelligencer* office, and had a long conversation with him and Mr. Gales on the subject. Thompson is a South Carolina planter, owner of one hundred slaves, and religiously believes that slavery was made for the African race and the African race for slavery. He opposes the annexation of Texas, on Southern grounds, as a Southern man. So did Calhoun; so did McDuffie; so did Hamilton—all now rabid annexationists. Thompson will be converted like them. He knocks down Walker, Wilkins, and C. J. Ingersoll with their own maul; but he smuggled through Congress the acknowledgment of Texas prematurely. He is as cunning as four Yankees, as sly as four Quakers, and just now admires the people of Massachusetts too much. I hope his letter will be eminently useful at the present crisis, and devoutly pray that he and Benton and the *Princeton* gun may be instruments for the deliverance of my country."

For a while the life of warfare, with the world for witness, ceases. He takes refuge in his library. It is instructive to see what books active minds resort to in their old age. Chancellor Kent is said to have gone to Scott; Adams, with a deep sigh, takes up Bacon. But we will let him tell his own story :

"Quincy, 18th.—I finished reading the life of Francis Bacon, Baron Verulam and Viscount St. Albans, by David Mallet, prefixed to the edition of his works in five volumes quarto, and I began the perusal of his works. This man was a prodigy and a paradox. He should be studied as a chronometer or a steam-engine should be studied—as a piece of moral and intellectual mechanism. Why did I not so study him fifty years ago? and of what use will it be for me to study him now? Indulgence of curiosity, a longing thirst for knowledge, a refuge from the sickening realities and desponding anticipations of the future, may perhaps carry me through this undertaking. The general reflection upon the life of Bacon is the melancholy aspect of great vicissitudes of fortune. His transcendent talents, rapacious ambition, and disgusting sycophany combined to raise him to the pinnacle of opulence, of honor, and of power. The causes of his downfall were his connivance with briberies practised by his servants, with whom he shared the plunder."

"19th.—The confinement to the house is tedious. I endeavor to cheer it by reading, and travelled this day through the two books of Francis Bacon, of the Proficiency and Advancement of Learning, Human and Divine."

"20th.—I made some progress in reading Bacon on the Advancement of Learning—finished the first and began the second book. In the dedication to King James, gross as his adulation is, it is not random praise. He extols him for four specific virtues: a virtuous disposition, a virtuous ambition, a virtuous observation of the laws of marriage, and a virtuous and most Christian desire of peace. These were real virtues of James's character, and they are genuine king-becoming graces; and it is piteous to reflect that, with all these virtues, and with all that learning for which he was not less famed, his character as a king and a man is universally despised."

"For the fulsome flattery I was seeking some excuse, and it occurred to me that in monarchical governments this plastering of the mighty man is conventional and formal, like 'your humble servant' at the close of a letter, or the greetings of acquaintances and mere strangers,

professing to be very obsequious to each other, meaning, of course, nothing of what is said."

In September, 1844, he is busily engaged with an address to his constituents. The professor of rhetoric crops out in his manner of treating it. "After all the trouble and pains," he writes on the 26th, "I have taken to draw up an address to my constituents. I find that it wants unity of subject, point for impression, and humor to hit the fancy and secure the sympathy of the auditory, and pleasantry to amuse them. All these are essential to popular eloquence. There is nothing so fatal to the success of stump-speaking as dulness. *Tous les genres sont bons, hormis le genre ennuyeux.*"

He has been invited to address the Young Men's Whig Club of Boston, and resolves to avail himself of the opportunity which this presents of clearing up some points in his own political history.

"I have determined," he writes, "to make this the immediate and single subject of my address to the Young Men's Whig Club at Boston, next Monday week: first, for the vindication of my own character from the vile slanders of Jackson, Ewing, Brown, and Charles J. Ingersoll; and, secondly, to expose to the world and to after-times the infamous means used to accomplish this annexation of Texas to the United States. How far this selection of my subject will be satisfactory to those whom I am to address; how far to the free people of this Union; how far I shall be able to enliven it with interest, is a problem from which I would shrink, if I could. I have fearful odds to encounter, and little to encourage me."

"Truths would you teach and save a sinking land,
All fear, none aid you, and few understand."

"My polar star must be my guide. The Florida treaty was the most important incident in my life, and the most successful negotiation ever consummated by the Government of this Union. And this is precisely selected, above all others, as an engine for the total destruction of my good name, and to charge me with treachery to my country and to my trust. I have long hesitated, not whether I should notice this conspiracy against me, but how and when. I have taken time to look over the documents, and can wind the whole body of conspirators round my fingers. My only danger is of losing my vantage ground."

We pause here in our task of selection. We have endeavored to execute it in such a way as to give a truthful picture both of the work and of the man. He belongs to a class almost extinct in this country—of hard-working statesmen who enter upon their task with a deep sense of its responsibilities, and shrink from no labor in the performance of them. Mr. Adams was not a man of genius, but a man of great parts and superior intelligence. He had already made great advancements in the discipline of mind at an age when most young men are still hesitating on the threshold. Hard work was natural to him, and we can hardly conceive of him as having passed an idle hour. Whatever well-directed industry could accomplish he never failed to accomplish, and the traditions of his patient labor, which are still preserved in the departments of state, place him at the head of hard-working men. We know of no better example to set before the young statesman than that of this old man preserving, even on the brink of the grave, the thirst for knowledge and the fiery energy of his youth.

SMITH'S DICTIONARY OF CHRISTIAN BIOGRAPHY.*

THE 'Dictionary of Christian Biography,' in conjunction with the 'Dictionary of Christian Antiquities,' the first volume of which was published in 1875, is intended to form a comprehensive cyclopaedia of ecclesiastical history for the first eight centuries of the Christian era, terminating with the age of Charlemagne. As the 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography' includes the names of the principal Christian writers, it to some extent covers the same ground as the present work; but the articles in the new dictionary are, as might be expected, much fuller and more thorough. For example, the article on Clement of Alexandria in the 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography' occupies less than three pages, the one in the present volume more than seven; the article on Basil the Great in the former work fills but a single page, in the latter more than fourteen.

It has been the aim of the editors, according to the preface, "to supply an adequate account, based upon original sources, of all persons connected with the history of the Church during the period treated concerning whom anything is known, of the literature connected with them, and of the controversies respecting doctrine or discipline in which they were engaged," these being treated from a purely historical point of view. "At one time the intention was entertained of exhibiting a complete Onomasticon of the Christian world for the first eight centuries; but it

* 'A Dictionary of Christian Biography, Literature, Sects, and Doctrines: being a continuation of 'The Dictionary of the Bible.' Edited by William Smith, D.C.L., LL.D.; and Henry Wace, M.A., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in King's College, London.' Volume A-D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877. 8vo. pp. xii.-914.

was found that to aim at such an ideal would delay the work indefinitely." Another plan was, therefore, adopted. The labors of such writers as Baronius, Tillemont, Ceillier, and the great collections illustrating the Church history of particular nations (as the 'Gallia Christiana') being taken as a basis, the materials derived from them have been combined with the results of modern research, every statement being verified as far as possible by consulting the original authorities. On a large number of subjects, especially the lives of the principal Christian fathers, eminent contributors to the work have presented the fruit of special studies. The editors assert, and with apparent justice, that the Dictionary furnishes a more complete collection of materials for the ecclesiastical history of the period with which it deals than has hitherto been produced either in England or abroad. So far as we have examined the leading articles, they compare favorably, on the whole, with those on the same subject in the principal German works of a similar character, as Herzog's 'Real-Encyclopädie für prot. Theol. und Kirche,' and Wetzer and Welte's 'Kirchen-Lexicon'; while for the period treated the work embraces a much larger number of names than either of these encyclopedias. It is intended to include all persons mentioned in the writings of the chief Fathers of the Church, whether Christians or not. Roman emperors and pagans are admitted in its pages, so far as they influenced the external fortunes or the thought of the Church.

The list of contributors to the Dictionary contains nearly one hundred names, including many writers of eminence. Among the more elaborate and valuable articles may be mentioned those by Professor R. A. Lipsius, of Jena, on *Acts of the Apostles, Apocryphal* (14 pages), *Abdias*, and *Apocalypses, Apocryphal*; by the Rev. E. Venables, on *Basilios of Cesarea* (14 pages), *Chrysostom* (17 pages), *Cyril of Jerusalem*, *Diodorus of Tarsus*; and by Professor Bright, of Oxford, on *Athanasius* (24½ pages), *Cyril of Alexandria* (10½ pages), *Didymus*, and *Dioscorus*. We may also notice those on *Augustine*, by E. de Pressense; on *Apollonius of Tyana* and *Celsus*, by J. R. Mozley; on *Buddha and Buddhism*, by Professor Cowell; on *Alcuin* and *Beda*, by Professor Stubbs; on the *Cabbalah*, by Dr. Ginsburg; on *Amphilochius of Iconium*, *Aption*, and *Apostolical Fathers*, by Professor Lightfoot; on *Clement of Alexandria* and *Pseudo-Dionysius the Areopagite*, by Professor Westcott; and the article *Creed*, by Professor Swainson. Many important articles—e.g., that on *Clementiae Literature*, are contributed by Dr. Salmon, of Trinity College, Dublin. Those on subjects of doctrine or discipline are principally by the Rev. E. S. Foulkes—e.g., *Baptism*, *Church*, *Confession*, *Confirmation*, *Demonology*; others of this class, as *Angels*, *Death and the Dead*, are by Professor Plumptre, who also writes on the earlier Roman emperors. Our countryman, Dr. Schaff, treats in his lucid style of *Christology*, *Adoptionism*, *Arianism*, *Apollinaris the Younger*, and other subjects. Some of the most careful and scholarly articles in the Dictionary, as *Basilides*, *Bardaisan* (Bardesanes), *Abrasax*; *Adam*, *Books of*; *Adamantius*, *Apelles*, are from the pen of Dr. F. J. A. Hort. The very elaborate article, *Coptic Church*, by the Rev. J. M. Fuller (21½ pages), oversteps the limits of the Dictionary, bringing the history down to the present time. Mr. Fuller also writes on *Donatism* with somewhat excessive fulness (15½ pages). Special attention has been paid to the church history of Great Britain and Ireland. Among the principal contributors in this department are the late Bishop of Brechin (Dr. A. P. Forbes), the Rev. A. W. Haddan, Professor Stubbs, and the Rev. Charles Hole. The general reader will be disposed to regard this part of the work as overloaded with very obscure names, and will be thankful that the intention of making it a complete Onomasticon was abandoned.

The subjects, generally speaking, are treated with commendable freedom from strong dogmatic prejudice. In this respect the work contrasts very favorably with the 'Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology,' and the 'Dictionary of Sects, Heresies, etc.,' edited by the Rev. Mr. Blunt. In the article on Cyril of Alexandria, however, the admiration of the writer for Cyril's orthodoxy has perhaps prevented him from doing full justice to the character of that ambitious, rapacious, unscrupulous, quarrelsome, and revengeful Saint.

We have noticed few errors. In the excellent article on *Clement of Alexandria* by Professor Westcott, through a strange "heterophemy," *ἀρατολίνης* is translated "Western" instead of "Eastern"; and in the article *Athenagoras*, an edition of that author is said to have been published in 1856 by "Dr. Paul Ludwig," for which read Dr. Ludwig Paul. The printing is generally very correct; but p. 155, col. 1, for "Leitalter" read "Zeitalter"; p. 807, col. 2, for "Dufreynoy" read "Dufresnoy," or rather "Lenglet-Dufresnoy"; and p. 901, col. 2, for "Gatland" read "Galland."

Among Christian writers whose names have been omitted, apparently through oversight, the following may be mentioned : Ammonius the presbyter of Alexandria (fl. cir. 458), the author of commentaries on the Psalms, the Gospel of John, and the book of Acts, of which considerable portions have been preserved in Catena,—not to be confounded, as he is by Alford and even by Tischendorf, with the Ammonius of the third century, author of a harmony of the Gospels, who also has no article assigned him in the Dictionary; Anianus or Annianus, the Pelagian, who translated sundry Homilies of Chrysostom on Matthew, and wrote a work against Jerome; Antonius the monk, disciple and biographer of St. Simeon Stylites; Aponius, or Apponiis, author of a commentary on the Canticles, published in the *Bibliotheca maxima Patrum*, vol. xiv.; Athanasius, presbyter of Alexandria about the middle of the fifth century, expelled by Dioscorus, and from whom we have a 'Libellus adversus Diocecurum,' presented to the Council of Chalcedon; Athanasius Celetes, or Junior, bishop of Alexandria A.D. 490, to whom Euthalius dedicated his work on the Acts and Epistles; Aurelius, bishop of Carthage A.D. 390; and Basilides of Pentapolis. To these might be added half a dozen others of lesser note, whose names may be found in Cave, Oudin, or Ceillier.

In so comprehensive a work the accidental omission of some of the obscurer names which are entitled to a place in it can hardly be avoided. Such oversights may be easily remedied in a supplement. If the remaining volumes are as carefully prepared as the present, the 'Dictionary of Christian Biography' will be of the greatest utility to all students of ecclesiastical history, supplying a want which has long been deeply felt.

Une Colonie Féodale en Amérique. L'Acadie, 1604-1710. Par M. Rameau. (Paris : Didier ; New York : F. W. Christen. 1877.)—M. Rameau is the author of 'La France aux Colonies,' a work of some value, as it embodies the results of much minute research into the census lists of Canada and Acadia. The present volume goes over much of the same ground, but gives also an historical sketch of the early history of Acadia, and contains, moreover, an exposition of the writer's views on American colonization in general. His central idea is that, in spite of prejudice to the contrary, it was all feudal in character. He admits that there were apparent exceptions. "Massachusetts, for example," he says, "wavered for some years in a ridiculous system of communal labor"; but he adds that the system of feudal grants failed not speedily to prevail. He is the bravest of generalizers : snatches at a detached fact and spreads it over as much ground as his theories require. According to him, "all the colonies of North America were established on the same plan, with certain variations in their institutions which perhaps had not all the importance since attributed to them." Among these colonies, he says, those of France were long preponderant. He speaks of these last as *purement agricoles*, in face of the patent fact that they lived chiefly by the fur trade. He tells us that, in the English colonies as in the French, the grants of land extended in regular lines along roads and rivers, with the difference that in the latter the grants of land were parallelograms, and in the former regular squares. These may serve as examples of his historical conclusions.

In his present work, unlike the former, he makes free use of second-hand authorities, and this without discrimination as to their trustworthiness. The book abounds in errors, due partly to this cause and partly to his own inexactness. He confounds Pemaquid with Portsmouth, Georges with Fort La Tour, and both these with another fort called Naxouat. Recollet friars, he assures his readers, were identical with Capucins. He says that the Abenakis called the commandant of Acadia "Onontio," an Iroquois name given only to the Governor of Canada. The Indians of Maine are in his eyes a "peuple chevalresque."

His favorite thesis is the superiority of the French over the English colonist, a conclusion to which he says that he has arrived as the result of long and careful research ; and this he regards as the true reason why the French colonies did not sooner succumb to the vastly superior number of their rivals.

"Audacity has since come to them with habitual success, but the Anglo-Saxons of 1650-1750 were very different from those of the present day. Very religious, very timid, more virtuous perhaps, and more social than their descendants, it must be confessed that nobody could be less bold or more inclined to stay at home than the English *pioneer* of this epoch. Their minds were feeble and timid ; they were little fitted to form new establishments, and they succumbed in multitudes under privations which they could neither provide against nor resist."

The change of character of which M. Rameau speaks seems to have taken place very promptly, as he may see, among other evidence, in the famous speech of Edmund Burke :

"Look at the manner in which the people of New England have of

late carried on the whale-fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Strait, whilst we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold—that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that while some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries ; no climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people ; a people who are still, as it were, in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood."

This notice is much too long already. M. Rameau's book is a curious example of the manner in which a man of confused brain and weak judgment, eager to see things in his own way, will distort some facts, overlook others, magnify others that are trifling into gigantic proportion, and all with no apparent intention to deceive anybody.

Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid. Third, and much enlarged edition. By Piazzi Smyth, Astronomer-Royal for Scotland. (New York : Geo. Routledge & Sons. 1877.)—If we followed a celebrated modern "Autocrat" in considering insanity to consist simply in reasoning in a different way from the mass of mankind, it would be difficult to escape from classifying Professor Piazzi Smyth as an insane person. But can a person be insane who is able to manage his own business, administer a scientific office, and write with vigor on every subject to which he applies his pen, including the very one on which he seems to be a monomaniac ? If our author were an ordinary enthusiast who had been carried away by some one idea, or if he were simply an ignorant speculator on subjects he could not understand, we should find no difficulty in forming a diagnosis of his case, and pronouncing his aberrations quite commonplace. But when a man of education, of some deserved eminence in the scientific world, the Astronomer-Royal for Scotland, and the Professor of Astronomy in the University of Edinburg, talks and reasons in a way which we are accustomed to associate with Second-Adventists, his mental condition and the theories to which that condition gives rise become invested with some interest. The theory which Professor Smyth has preached for nearly fifteen years, in season and out of season, is that the building of the Great Pyramid was in some way a work of divine inspiration, embodying in its construction many of the elements of modern mathematics and astronomy. The height of the pyramid was, to one side of its base, in the same ratio as the diameter of a circle to the half of its circumference, the length of the base being 764 English feet, and the original height 486 feet. The unit of measure used in the construction was the ten-millionth part of the earth's semi-axis of rotation, or nearly twenty-five British inches, while the side of the base contains as many of these units as there are days in the year. By a yet greater marvel the distance of the sun may be found by the simple process of multiplying the vertical height of the pyramid by the ninth power of 10, and the astronomers who sent out expeditions to observe the transit of Venus when they had the solar parallax ready at hand receive a severe castigation. A sufficient idea of the book can be gathered from these examples of its theories.

The ABC of Finance. By Simon Newcomb, LL.D. (New York : Harper & Brothers.)—Most of the short and easy lessons on the science of Money embraced in this little volume (one of Harper's "Half-Hour Series") were originally contributed to *Harper's Weekly*. The author says that the unexpected favor with which they were received encouraged him to reproduce them in more permanent form, and to add several chapters on the labor questions of the day. The chapters of most immediate interest, as bearing upon current topics, are those on Starvation Wages, on the Value of Paper Money, "Why has the Greenback any Value ?" the 3.65-Bond Plan, the Evil of a Depreciating Currency, and the Public Faith. Professor Newcomb has not attempted, or only slightly attempted, to advance new points in economic science, or to argue controverted ones, but merely to bring well-established principles to the apprehension of common people, and to show their application to the society, industry, and legislation of the United States as now existing or as sought to be modified. In this modest but useful endeavor he has unquestionably succeeded, but he has still left the field open for an American Bastiat, if there be one, to illustrate, by parables and by examples from every-day life, the same truths in even more popular and engaging phrase. As the volume contains only 115 pages and is sold for twenty-

five cents, it is within the reach of nearly everybody who can read, and will undoubtedly be welcome to many to whom economic reasoning is generally irksome and distressing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott (E.), <i>Out Doors at Long Look</i>	Noyes, Snow & Co., \$1.25
Bellot (Marquis de), <i>Christopher Columbus</i>	(Gebbie & Barrie)
Clark (W. J., Jr.), <i>Great American Sculptures</i>	(Gebbie & Barrie)
Frost (S. Annie), <i>Ladies' Guide to Needle-work and Embroidery</i> , swd. (H. T. Williams)	
Fret Sawing for Pleasure and Profit, swd. (H. T. Williams)	
Toland (Mrs. M. B.), <i>Stella</i> . 5th ed.	(James Miller)

Fine Arts.

THE LOAN EXHIBITION AT THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—I.

DURING the weeks that have passed since the opening of this Exhibition the galleries have been well filled with paying visitors. Indeed, every visitor pays; since, to swell the receipts of the Society they are working for, even the hard-worked managers and members of committees have bought their season tickets. The pecuniary result ought to be a good one for the Decorative Art Society, as the expenses of the undertaking must be very trifling, always excepting the heavy rent paid for the galleries.

But it is this same rent which has caused, indirectly, most of the strictures upon the Exhibition, by inducing great haste, and consequent lack of system, in the preparations for the opening. The object of this show is, after all, to fill the treasury of the Decorative Art Society; if this is done better by means of a crowd of objects of beauty and value heaped together without arrangement and with no catalogue worthy of the name, than it could be done by means of a more perfectly organized and therefore more instructive collection, certainly no fault ought to be found with the managers. The criticisms made in the city papers (and we are thinking especially of Mr. Cook's letter in the *Tribune*) are not to be deprecated, for they are eminently just. It is a fact that European and Oriental porcelain are jumbled together on the same shelves, so that bewilderment to the beginner and fatigue to the more practised student must result from any attempt at study and comparison. It is true that one of Tiffany & Co.'s elaborate and florid silver vases towers above a little cluster of delicate antique glass and modern Spanish enamel of garish colors. It is true that embroidered silks are used for a background to pottery, enamels, silver-ware, and Japan lacquer—not a good background except that they add to the general idea of splendor of color—and are themselves half hidden by what they only half display. It is true that the objects are only half numbered, so that it is often impossible to identify any one by means of the catalogue; and that the "catalogue" itself is a mere list, not quite so full of blunders as might have been expected by those who know how it was made—by copying, in haste, the descriptions and the ascriptions furnished by the owners of the objects lent, with all the handwritings different, and no expert in charge to answer questions. But all these facts, though deserving mention, are not to be held up too prominently as faults or errors on the part of the managers. The Museum of Art could not afford to open such a heterogeneous show, but the Society of Decorative Art could not afford to do otherwise. Its problem was this: given galleries which must be paid for by the week, required that they be filled with precious and beautiful things fit to draw a crowd of visitors, and in such a way that the minimum of time be spent in preparation, and the maximum of time allowed for exhibition and for profit. The problem has been solved to the satisfaction of all concerned.

To the student of ornamental art the gathering of fine things is very attractive; and it is pleasant to see the indications of a great advance in the taste of our prosperous people. This exhibition has been made up with very little aid from the possessors of the largest collections of works of art, some of whom have sent nothing, others only a few pieces. The galleries, indeed, are small, and were quickly filled by volunteers, and it is certain that four times the space could have been filled as easily, and with even a higher average of excellence in the articles exhibited. To take an instance: New York is richer in Eastern art than in that of Europe, proportionally, and many more persons have learned to love beautiful things from Japan and China than can be found to care for Majolica or Limoges enamels. And yet of Oriental porcelain and pottery the show is small. Fine Chinese porcelain is almost wholly unrepresented. In the East gallery, in a case on the western side, are a number of pieces of "old blue" belonging to Mr. Andrews, many of them very delicate and choice, and among them one jar of a ware now greatly in demand. On the other shelf below are two or three pieces of Chinese porcelain

painted in enamels, among which is noticeable one very good vase, the property of Mr. Coleman. On the opposite side of the room, at the south end, No. 968 is a good piece, as far as the dark place it is in allows it to be seen. In the northernmost case on the same side a large round dish seems to be one of those old pieces of porcelain which have had a varied experience: once a simple piece of blue and white, afterwards painted in enamel color, still in China, and finally adopted into European society by the painting, probably in Holland, of a shield of arms in the centre. It hangs in a shadow which is very profound on a bright day, or in the gas-light, and our reading of it may not be wholly correct. On the bottom of the same case lies the most costly piece of Chinese porcelain, a thin and delicate plate painted with a figure-subject and with ornaments, all in the most refined and elaborate manner. There are also several pieces of crackle-ware in different colors.

Of Japanese wares the old Hizen ought to take precedence. This is the hard white porcelain, decorated with dark blue under the glaze, and with iron-red and gold, and sometimes green and black, superposed: the ware known to our ancestors as "old Japan." Perhaps the finest specimen is No. 1035, a large covered jar belonging to Mr. Belmont, and set on top of a case on the east side of this same East gallery. One over the north door of the same gallery is fine and characteristic, and in a case near is a full set—a regular ancestral *surtout de cheminée*—of three pot-pourri jars and two "beakers." Near No. 1035, and also on top of the cases, are three large covered jars belonging to Mr. Belmont, which seem to be old Hizen ware of value, partly covered with lacquer. But this lacquer is not at all like the brilliant and highly-finished lacquer applied in Japan to modern porcelain and the soft paste earthenware of Kaga and other provinces. Every frequenter of the shops knows those vases, sometimes lacquered all over, and more often having panels or medallions in that decoration, the rest of the vase painted in the usual way. The pieces under consideration are more as if painted with oil-color, dusted with gold powder or bronze powder, and varnished, but not left very glossy. The forms of this unfired painting are European. Is the work Dutch? This sort of ornamentation frequently occurs, and there is some of it to be found upon unmistakable Delft. It is probably an attempt on the part of some Hollander to imitate the lacquer of Japan, and it may well be that it is perfectly well known and classified, though we have not found the description of it. Apart from this rather awkward decoration, the three large covered jars seem to be very fine. There are also at the south end of this room, on brackets, some large platters of the bold decoration of the later wares of the province of Hizen, very ornamental and noble pieces.

Of the pretty Kaga wares, only one piece attracts the eye, a charming gourd-shaped bottle, belonging to Mr. L. C. Tiffany.

But it is Satsuma ware, and the various buff, hard-paste, crackled potteries which pass for it sometimes, that are the most popular: and during the past year some very splendid specimens of both ancient and modern Satsuma have been brought to New York and sold. Before the Philadelphia Exhibition the finer specimens had hardly been seen here, and even at that exhibition there were few pieces of value. Now there are, in the East room at the Academy, several fine specimens, but the only piece which shows the highest class of the enamel painting which gives this pottery its value, is the little shallow cup in a case on the west wall, having on the inside a sacred personage with an immense gold halo around his head. On the same shelf with this are several delicious bits of that enamel painting, in subdued color and conventional patterns, which is perhaps the most perfectly artistic and appropriate decoration for ceramic ware yet invented. The large covered fire-pot decorated with disks, belonging to Mr. L. C. Tiffany, deserves the great admiration it attracts; a little cup, turned bottom up, and having written on a pasted label "7036, S. Coleman," is equally perfect as an instance in point; there are others nearly as fine. On two brackets at the South end of the room are two fire-pots belonging to Mr. Herter, and a splendid one belonging to Mr. Coleman is in a case which has been moved just now, at the time of writing, into the newly-opened South gallery. These specimens bring up the question of the authenticity of the ware; all our knowledge about the *fabriques* of Japan is very doubtful, but according to our usual standards of comparison the last-named piece is Satsuma ware of the middle period, and the former two fine specimens of the faience of Kioto. Two large vases set up on high seem to represent old and new Satsuma very well; at least No. 1045, the huge one over the door, is probably of the last century, and No. 1057, at the west side, painted with crabs as large as life, is of the manufacture of to-day. Finally, some plates in the case first mentioned are apparently of excellent quality, but are all in the shadow of the shelf above so as hardly to be seen. The one at the left side, painted with a strange ma-

rine view, may be equal to the finest pieces imported, but it needs a gray day and a strong glass to see it.

There are a few fine pieces of Chinese cloisonné enamel on copper. A few years ago, and perhaps up to the year of the Vienna Exhibition, this ware was assumed to be of greater rarity than it proves to be. Even the experts of Paris seem to have thought that every piece of it was worthy of a certain respect as a rare production; this rather comical awe of what proves to be as common a manufacture as stoneware having been caused, probably, by the great rarity of cloisonné enamels of European make. Now that boat-loads of it are brought to us it is hard to distinguish between styles and epochs. Such pieces as those from the Hurd collection, which were exhibited by the Boston Museum of Fine Arts three years ago, are as precious as they have ever been thought, and a piece as large, ancient, and splendid in color as the plaque for sale till lately at Tiffany's, must always be a costly rarity; but it is hard to know what is second quality and what is inferior, so far as those considerations go which after all do the most in fixing the money value. One is driven to decide according to the relative beauty of the pieces, and it may be fortunate that it is so. In the East room, in a case, are two shelves full of small pieces, nearly all

belonging to Mr. Hoe. Of these the most beautiful, perhaps, and the most ancient and most precious, probably, is the square vase with flaring top. Among the others let each visitor select her or his favorite piece. The mastery of subdued but glowing color in the finer enamels of this sort is perhaps the strongest argument in favor of the claims of the Chinese decorators to surpass all others in color.

Of that Japanese cloisonné enamel in dusky colors and small divisions, delicate but mechanical and hard, of which our shops have been full, no specimen occurs; it is not to be greatly regretted. But No. 441, the cylindrical box belonging to Mr. Strobridge, is ornamented with incrusted disks and patterns of that sort of enamel; and this combination of the enamelling with the polished metal surface is effective, and not common. There is one variety, apparently of more ancient Japanese make, of which one good piece, belonging to Mr. E. C. Moore, is to be seen on the same shelf with Mr. Hoe's smaller pieces; and the bowl hidden behind this specimen seems to be of the same sort. This old Japan enamel has the metal lines as thin as in the modern work, but the colors are singularly harmonious and the design never very sharply made out. There is always a piece or two to be bought; but there seems little doubt that it is really ancient, and the supply limited.

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